The Dissertation Committee for Caryn Marie Witten certifies that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:

The effects of input enhancement and interactive video viewing on the development of pragmatic awareness and use in the beginning Spanish L2 classroom

Committee:

Dale A. Koike, Supervisor

Thomas J. Garza

Frederick G. Hensey

Orlando R. Kelm

Diane L. Schallert

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by

Caryn Marie Witten, B.A., M.A.

Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Texas at Austin

August 2002

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband and soul mate, David, whose financial, technical, and moral support helped make this project possible.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Dr. Dale Koike for her time and dedication in helping me to formulate and articulate the concepts involved in this dissertation. Her tireless attention to detail and editing talent have transformed this into a more professionally written document of which I can be proud. I am also grateful to her for teaching me the basics of classroom research in her two courses and inspiring me to undertake such investigations.

I would also like to express my appreciation to the other members of my dissertation committee. All of them made important contributions, and I would like to recognize them (in alphabetical order). Dr. Thomas Garza contributed valuable insight and resources regarding the incorporation of video into the L2 classroom. Dr. Orlando Kelm offered several helpful suggestions that facilitated the streamlining of the focus of this study and the refinement of the feedback instruments employed in the investigation. Also, his computer class helped immeasurably to make this undertaking less stressful. Dr. Fritz Hensey offered valuable advice concerning data collection and analysis methodologies. Dr. Diane Schallert contributed much useful advice regarding editing, formulating the focus of the study, and data collection methodology. Her Psycholinguistics class provided important references, insights, and techniques used in this research.

This dissertation represents six years of effort that constituted one of the greatest challenges of my life. I owe much thanks to divine intervention throughout

the process and am grateful for the constant prayers on my behalf from Alice Orr, the 31 prayer team at Northwest Fellowship, my NWF home group, and from CMA members. Thanks are due to my sister Nellie who was ahead of me in this process and offered much advice concerning research methodology and statistical analysis. The constant encouragement of my husband, David, and father, Robert Orr, were also greatly appreciated.

I would like to express my gratitude to several UT colleagues. Thanks to Ann Wildermuth for much input in devising my experimental treatments and for access to the intensive Spanish classes at UT. In addition, I am grateful to several Spanish native-speaker colleagues for contributing their intuitions and advice concerning Spanish pragmatics and grammar. I would also like to thank my fellow instructors and the students at UT who volunteered to be participants in this study. A special thanks is owed to my colleagues Lynn Pearson, Delia Montesinos and Carolyn Dunlap for logistical help and moral support from the original pilot study until the end of this endeavor. The computer and statistical advisors at UT are also owed a debt of gratitude for their knowledge and patience.

I am thankful to the administration and my colleagues at Southeastern Oklahoma State University for having the faith to hire me while I was still involved in this project and for their support during this final year. Finally, since I am undoubtedly overlooking some of the many people whose contributions helped along the way, to them I also offer my sincere gratitude.

The effects of input enhancement and interactive video viewing on the development of pragmatic awareness and use in the beginning Spanish L2 classroom

Publication No._____

Caryn Marie Witten, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2002

Supervisor: Dale April Koike

This study presents research on L2 pragmatic awareness and use by beginning learners of Spanish. It tests a specific instructional methodology based on linguistic theory, such as Schmidt's (1993) Noticing Hypothesis. Questions are addressed concerning the role of conscious awareness in learning L2 pragmatics, how interactive video viewing can enhance pragmatic input, and effects on global comprehension.

While viewing a video series, 62 participants were asked to find examples of speech acts corresponding to those in their L1 and to note contexts in which the Spanish second person singular was used. Instead of form-focused treatments, a control group viewed the series and later completed plot-oriented treatments. Following nine assignments, all participants responded to three instruments. A written instrument examined learners' awareness of L2 pragmatics, attitudes toward the video component of the course, the time dedicated to this component, and global comprehension. An oral role-play involving situations seen in the video was also

administered, and a multiple-choice task was completed to determine participants' recognition of appropriate forms.

Data analysis on all items concerning pragmatics, regardless of task, indicated statistical significance favoring the test group. The test group performed significantly better on the written task and displayed a somewhat more positive attitude toward the video component of the course. The test group reported dedicating significantly more time to this component of the course and demonstrated slightly better global comprehension. Attitude and time on task were considered possible intervening variables influencing performance. Results of the oral task showed some positive trends, but no statistical significance, while results from the multiple-choice task did not reflect a difference between the two groups.

Analysis of individual items from the feedback revealed a pattern of better performance by the test group with second person address, an area that was repeatedly enhanced. Data for individual speech acts suggest that L2 learners are active participants in the learning process who seem more cognizant of features that are more salient to them. Speech act findings may also indicate that some features are more easily assimilated than others and that the Noticing Hypothesis does not apply equally to all pragmatic material.

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This dissertation addresses two problems observed in the Spanish second language (L2) classroom. The first is that it is very difficult to teach pragmatics in the L2 classroom (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996:160), and the second is the underutilization of video-based materials in foreign language instruction. Current utilization of video in the L2 classroom was determined to be problematic for two reasons. As explained in later sections, in many cases the use of video materials has not been adapted to current linguistic theory. Furthermore, personal experience of the researcher and several colleagues uncovered a negative attitude displayed by many learners toward the video component of L2 Spanish courses at various universities. Therefore, goals for the instructional methodology created for this current study included the utilization of L2 video in a manner that better interfaces with the needs of the learner as posited by current second language acquisition (SLA) theory and that engenders a more positive attitude on the part of the learners. The problems encountered in both teaching pragmatics and utilizing L2 videos are addressed together in this study in the use of a specific strategy to develop awareness of L2 pragmatics via the enhancement of video and the encouragement of interactive video viewing. In the following sections, the area of pragmatics is defined and the problem of teaching pragmatics is examined. Attention is then given to the use of video in the L2 classroom before elaborating on this specific strategy.

Pragmatics has been defined as interpersonal rhetoric (Leech, 1983), as "the rules for using linguistic items in context" (Hudson, 1980:220), and as "people's

comprehension and production of linguistic action in context" (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993:3). Levinson (1983:7) defines pragmatics as the performance principles of language use, while Stalker (1989:184) says that it is a system of rules that defines the relationship of meaning to the context(s) in which it occurs. He further claims that pragmatics matches functions with particular language choices in certain contexts. The definition offered by Savignon (1983: 308) is more complex. She defines pragmatics as "concerned with the relationships between expressions in the formal system of language and anything else outside it; an interdisciplinary field of inquiry concerned with relations between linguistic units, speakers, and extralinguistic facts; roles and uses of language in social contexts; the science of language use." According to Wolfson (1984:86), pragmatic rules reflect the underlying cultural assumptions of a society. Mey (1993:35) claims that the study of pragmatics differs from the study of other aspects of language because "pragmatics is interested in the process of producing language and in its producers, not just in the end-product, language."

To avoid any possible confusion between two linguistic concepts, it would seem important to describe the basic difference between semantics and pragmatics: semantics examines sentence meaning in isolation while pragmatics concerns utterance meaning within a context. Again, as with many definitions in the field of linguistics, there are differences of opinion. For example, Wierzbicka (1991:5), who calls pragmatics "the study of human interaction," contends that pragmatics are a part of semantics. Bialystok (1993) asserts that semantics is the relationship of form to meaning while pragmatics is the relationship of form to social context.

For centuries, L2 researchers and instructors have developed and employed different ways to teach grammar rules. Also, throughout history, some L2

practitioners have advocated speaking the L2 in the classroom and doing extensive reading in the L2 so that learners would become accustomed to developing strategies in order to fill in gaps in comprehension. This process is referred to as "strategic competence" (Canale & Swain, 1980). Furthermore, partial or total oral or written exposure to the L2 could allow the learner to develop a sense of how ideas are connected in the L2, called "discourse competence" (Canale & Swain, 1988). But instruction concerning L2 pragmatics has been overlooked in the classroom for the most part. Traditionally, learners have had to discover that what is appropriate to say in their native language (L1) in a given situation may not be appropriate to say in another language through their experiences with L2 speakers. Needless to say, many of these experiences have not promoted harmonious intercultural relationships. Although Meeuwis (cited in Kasper 1997:356) found that native speakers (NSs) are more lenient toward nonnative speaker's (NNS's) errors than are other NNSs, it appears that this statement is only true in the area of grammar. In fact, researchers such as Canale and Swain (1988:65) and Carroll (1978) have observed that native speakers have more tolerance for L2 learners' grammatical errors than for their pragmatic errors at both early and late stages of language development. Other researchers have supported this contention (Wolfson 1984:62). The major focus of this study is to examine ways to enhance the development of pragmatic competence in the Spanish L2 learner within the academic context so that these language learners will have more positive encounters with native L2 speakers when they apply their knowledge to the "real world."

Related to the issue of teaching pragmatics is providing an appropriate context in which to observe pragmatic usage by native speakers. In a study on pragmatic competence and adult L2 acquisition, Koike (1995:276) stated that students of

Spanish need to be exposed not only to the language itself, but to a contextualized, interactive language, such as through videotapes. She concluded that only through exposure to contextualized language at all levels will students become truly proficient in language use and understand the target language ways of speaking. Her findings address both the problem of how to teach L2 pragmatics and the problem of underutilization of video in the classroom that were mentioned at the outset of this study. Her suggestion that video be used to help learners develop a pragmatic competence suggests indirectly that the two problems may have a common solution.

In this study attention is given to increasing the learners' pragmatic competence and the usefulness of video as a tool in L2 instruction. Therefore, the study examines if and how video can be used in language instruction to teach L2 pragmatics.

In the following sections the problems of how to teach pragmatics and how to use video in the L2 classroom more effectively are placed within the context of current L2 instructional issues. To this end, the history of language teaching theories and methodologies that led to these current L2 issues and some terms that are used throughout the study are discussed. We also explain why addressing the problems of how to teach pragmatics and using video more effectively are important to L2 instruction.

1.2 THE CONTEXT OF THE PROBLEM

1.21 A brief history of L2 instruction theories and methodologies

Because L2 learners of past centuries were interested primarily in translating texts, the grammar/translation method was developed and became the most common

L2 instructional methodology. Critics of this methodology, however, can be found as far back as the 16th century. The French philosopher Montaigne (1580) proposed that foreign languages be learned by speaking, not by learning grammatical rules. Soon after, others echoed this belief, such as the linguist Comenius (Savignon, 1983:47).

With the growth of the behaviorist school of psychology in the mid twentieth century, Lado (1957) proposed a methodology called "The Audio-Lingual Method." This method stressed patterned drills designed for the L2 learner to learn the basic structures of the L2. Once the basic structures were acquired, the learner was expected to extend this knowledge to the language as a whole. Unlike the grammar/translation method, the audio-lingual method placed a heavy emphasis on oral/aural language skills. This methodological shift represented a movement toward using foreign languages for oral communication in addition to translation and reading. The emphasis of foreign language use for interpersonal communication purposes would later make the study of pragmatics more relevant to the fields of second language acquisition (SLA) and foreign language education.

Due to continuing dissatisfaction with the communicative abilities of learners taught via grammar/translation and growing dissatisfaction with the communicative skills of those taught via the audio-lingual methodology, researchers and instructors in the 1960's investigated teaching methodologies that would enable learners to develop the oral production and listening comprehension skills that were necessary to facilitate interpersonal communication. This interest to teach learners to communicate in the L2 with native speakers in addition to the abilities to read, write,

and produce accurate linguistic forms increased and fueled relevant research in SLA and foreign language education.[1]

The increased interest and research into issues of the development of L2 oral communication skills led to an awareness of other deficiencies in past and current L2 instructional methodologies. In 1970 Campbell and Wales (cited in Hadley, 1993:249) noted that Chomsky's concept of linguistic competence seemed to encompass only grammatical competence. Campbell and Wales outlined a view that added a pragmatic/sociolinguistic dimension to language competence. At the same time, Hymes (1968, 1971, 1972a, 1972b) was also developing the notion that competence involved more than just a knowledge of grammar rules. Hymes (1972b:282) coined the phrase "communicative competence," which he claimed is dependent upon both a tacit knowledge of the rules of a language and the ability to use the language appropriately. Canale and Swain (1980) broadened the term of communicative competence and claimed that it encompassed grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. They later added discourse competence to the definition. Savignon (1983) broadened the notion of strategic competence, claiming that it extended to writing as well as to oral negotiation. The communicative competence "movement" caught the attention of many more in the L2 community and has been an important force in L2 instruction throughout the past few decades. Because of its importance to an interest in the role of pragmatics in L2 instruction, the definition of communicative competence and methodologies

[1] As is often the case in many fields of inquiry, this "new" concept emphasizing interpersonal communication had actually been addressed in earlier times. In the 1800's a methodology, "The Direct Approach," which led to the Berlitz methodology was developed. Also, in the 19th century N. M. Petersen's "Natural Method" was developed (Savignon, 1983:47). It stressed language learning through language use. So, the increased interest in oral communication in the 1960's was more a revival than a new approach in the L2 field.

developed to address the development of communicative competence are elaborated in the following sections.

1.211 Communicative competence and L2 naturalistic learning

When discussing the concept of communicative competence, it must be noted that by the 1980's some researchers, such as Bachman and Savignon (1986), were claiming that the terms "communicative competence" and "proficiency" had already been overused and misused (Hadley, 1993:381). For this study, communicative competence is considered to include the four separate subgroups of competence (grammatical, discourse, strategic, and pragmatic/sociolinguistic) outlined by Canale and Swain (1980, 1988), although, for example, according to Hudson (1980:220), the term also includes attitudes, values, and motivation.

In the definition that is used for this study, "grammatical competence" refers to the knowledge of and ability to use the lexical items, rules of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics of a language properly (Canale & Swain, 1980). "Discourse competence" is the ability to comprehend texts and to connect utterances. "Strategic competence" refers to the ability to take the information that a language learner comprehends, no matter how limited, and to fill in the gaps using general linguistic knowledge in order to comprehend a complete utterance or text. Savignon's (1983:309) definition of strategic competence states that it is "the ability to compensate for imperfect knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse rules or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction, inattention; the effective use of coping strategies to sustain or enhance communication." For example, Wood (1995:22) states, that with as few as 600 words, a language learner

may be able to comprehend 80% of a movie. Given that the number of different words in an average movie ranges from 5,000 to 20,000, one can conclude that the knowledge of only 10% or less of the words is communicatively essential. The learners' strategic competence makes such a feat possible. Finally, "pragmatic or sociolinguistic competence" refers to the ability to use language appropriately in a given situation. Since the latter is the area of communicative competence that is central to this study, it is elaborated upon later in section 1.22.

Many methodologies have been proposed to help develop the L2 learners' communicative competence. One of these is Asher's "Total Physical Response" (TPR) method in which learners actively respond to commands. This method encourages a multi-sensory learning approach (visual, auditory, tactile, and kinetic), which Asher concludes will increase the rate of L2 acquisition and retention (Asher, 1977, 1982). Other communicative competence-oriented methodologies that gained some acceptance among practitioners in the field include Curran's "Community Language Learning," Lozanov's "Suggestopedia," and Gattegno's "Silent Way."[2] The most influential of all of the new ideas of the late 1960's and 1970's within the communicative competence movement, however, was Krashen's Monitor Model (1978, 1982, 1983, 1985). Since problems identified with this influential Monitor Model led to the subsequent appearance of the consciousness raising and input enhancement theories and methodologies employed in this study, Krashen's theory is outlined below.

The underlying assumption of the Monitor Model was that adult learners could learn an L2 the same way they learned their L1. This theory contradicted others posited by researchers such as Lenneberg (1967), who claimed that there was a

[2] See Blair (1982) for a discussion of these and other communicative methodologies.

critical period for native level language acquisition that ended around the age of puberty. Critical period research holds that if there is a species-specific language acquisition device (LAD) as theorized by Chomsky (1972), it is only available up to a certain age after which humans must use other cognitive processes to learn an L2. Krashen's Monitor Model theory claimed that adults could acquire an L2 in the same way that they had acquired their L1, mainly by listening to large doses of "comprehensible input" a bit beyond their current comprehension level (referred to as "i+1") in a non-threatening environment that lowered the learner's anxiety level, which Krashen called the "affective filter."

According to this theory, L2 production would follow comprehension. Instructors were not to correct production errors, but to allow output to develop in stages, as it does in a human's first language. Krashen distinguished between "learned" and "acquired" knowledge. "Learned" knowledge was similar to Chomsky's (1972) and Savignon's (1983:9) concepts of "competence" while "acquired" knowledge was similar to their concepts of "performance." Learned knowledge referred to what language learners theoretically knew while acquired knowledge was what L2 learners could produce, the features of the L2 that were available automatically when writing or speaking. Thus, Krashen's concept of acquired knowledge was similar to the intuitive knowledge that an L1 speaker possesses. Conversely, learned knowledge was not automatic. It had to be processed through the monitor. Krashen did not believe that learned knowledge was readily accessible nor truly assimilated by the L2 speaker. Krashen also proposed what he called the "Natural Order Hypothesis," containing two corollaries: (1) speaking is the result of acquisition, not its cause; and (2) if input is understood, and if there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided. Krashen and Terrell

(1983) combined the goal of communicative competence and Krashen's Monitor Model (1978) to develop a pedagogical methodology they called "The Natural Approach." This method was widely embraced although problems encountered with its use soon led to criticism and, subsequently, to modified theories and methodologies.

1.212 Communicative competence and input enhancement in L2 instruction

McLaughlin (1979) criticized Krashen's distinction between learned and acquired knowledge, claiming that a clear delineation could not be proven. Breen (1989) claimed that learned and acquired knowledge were intertwined and recommended a combination of explicit grammar instruction and natural input, including native speaker interaction, for the L2 learner. Swain (1985) criticized Krashen's concept outlined in corollary #1 above. In working with French immersion learners, Swain found that it was necessary to force the learner to speak (an approach that she labeled "pushed output") in order for the learner to acquire correct grammatical structures. Beebe (1985) criticized Krashen's notion of the passive learner. She saw L2 learners as active participants in the learning process who chose the target language models that they valued most to learn. These and other criticisms led researchers to consider whether learners would "automatically" learn an L2 with exposure or whether it was necessary to draw the learners' attention to the formal properties of an L2 in order for them to be aware of them and to acquire them.

Though communicative competence was still the goal of most in the L2 community, throughout the 1980's and 1990's research was finding limits to a reliance on comprehensible input to attain second language acquisition (Gass &

Madden, 1985; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Rutherford, 1988; Schachter, 1988; Sharwood-Smith, 1980, 1986, 1988, 1993). In fact, Schmidt (1990b) claimed that there has been no hard evidence to suggest that subliminal learning takes place in L2 learning, or in any other kind of learning. Schmidt (1990a:5) outlined the difficulty in distinguishing between conscious and unconscious learning by claiming that, when we think of language learning as conscious or unconscious, we might be thinking of several distinct aspects of the problem of consciousness in learning. These aspects include whether the target language forms that are learned are consciously noticed or picked up through some kind of subliminal perception, whether learners acquire general rules or principles on the basis of conscious understanding and insight or more intuitively, and whether learners are able to give an accurate account of the rules and principles that seem to underlie the construction of utterances.

The aforementioned researchers began to conclude that the adult L2 learners' conscious attention should be focused on the formal properties of language in order for them to acquire an L2 accurately enough to be communicatively competent. In other words, they claimed that more specific input is necessary for new language forms to be noticed, processed, and produced. L2 instruction based on this belief has been referred to as "consciousness-raising" (CR). The term "consciousness-raising" as it refers to L2 acquisition was coined by Sharwood-Smith (1980). While the L2 acquisition theories and methods outlined in section 1.211 stressed implicit, inductive, bottom-up processing strategies, CR stresses explicit, deductive, top-down learning processes. To summarize their arguments, CR researchers submit that explicit learning is more efficient and effective for the post-critical period L2 learner (Gass & Madden, 1985; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Rutherford, 1988; Schachter, 1988; Schmidt, 1993a; Sharwood-Smith, 1980, 1986, 1988, 1993). Schmidt (1993a:27)

suggests that explicit instruction allows for the formation and testing of hypotheses and searching the memory for related knowledge on which to "anchor" the new knowledge. Schmidt refers to this sequence of events as the Noticing Hypothesis.

There has been much research on CR, which has been defined as "the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language" as opposed to "natural circumstances where attention to form may be minimal and sporadic" (Rutherford & Sharwood-Smith, 1985, 1988:107). CR research (Sharwood-Smith, 1980, 1986, 1988, 1993, 1994; Robinson, 1995, 1997a, 1997b; Tomlin & Villa, 1994; Gass & Varonis, 1994) has shown mainly how CR strategies influence the learning of L2 grammar. Pienneman (1986) argued that overt grammar instruction does not affect the stages of language acquisition, but rather shortens the time needed to master a particular stage. In other words, he claimed that CR makes the language learning process quicker and more efficient.

While CR describes what happens in the mind of the learner, the term "input enhancement," coined by Sharwood-Smith, describes what is done by the L2 instructor in the hopes of stimulating CR in the learners (Sharwood-Smith, 1988, 1991, 1993). White, Spade, Lightbown, and Ranta (1991:416) defined input enhancement (IE) as corrective feedback and form-focused instruction. The former provides negative evidence while the latter provides an opportunity for both positive and negative evidence. They provided some examples of negative evidence. For example, an instructor who responds with "DOES Mary like John?" to a learner's question "Mary like John?" or with "Elizabeth usually takes the bus" to a comment "Elizabeth takes usually the bus." or correcting a learner who uses "singed" in place of "sang" (p. 417) are examples of negative evidence provided via corrective feedback. While IE may provide positive and negative evidence and draws the

learners' attention to the formal properties of the L2 overtly, naturalistic learning provides mainly positive evidence and does not normally draw attention to specific features of the L2 that may go unnoticed by the L2 learners.

Since it is much easier to describe what the instructor is doing than to know what is happening in the mind of the learner, from this point on the term "input enhancement" (IE) is used rather than CR to discuss the treatments that were used in this study to raise the learners' consciousness and to affect their pragmatic competence. Chapter Two presents a more in-depth examination of CR/IE theories. In section 1.4, the importance of IE in the context of the acquisition of L2 pragmatics is considered after the roles of pragmatics and video in L2 instruction are discussed.

1.22 Pragmatic/Sociolinguistic Competence

In 1980, Brown (cited in Hadley, 1993) noted that sociolinguistic competence is the most difficult of the four areas of communicative competence to acquire because it requires sensitivity to cross-cultural differences. Stevick (1983, cited in Garza 1996:2) provides an example of a non-native speaker (NNS) who has acquired good grammatical, but poor pragmatic, competence. In his example, a native speaker (NS) makes a request saying "Do you think you could open that door?" and an NNS replies, "Yes, I do." Such a response does not facilitate successful NS:NNS communication. According to Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei (1998), grammar is the micro level of communicative competence while pragmatics provide the macro level of this ability. Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei also claim that the "washback effect" of language tests makes learners focus on grammar and more concerned with the "what" (grammar) than the "how" (pragmatics) of language (1998:255). They conclude that

this grammar emphasis is especially pronounced in EFL rather than in ESL environments (1998:256). Since most Spanish is taught in FL environments, these findings are germane to this study.

Moreover, it appears from the research that the relative importance given to the L2 speakers' grammatical versus pragmatic competence depends on the background of the L2 instructor, listener, or learner. Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998:252) found that NS teachers marked pragmatic errors as more egregious than grammatical errors while NNS teachers were harsher on grammatical errors. Likewise, Kasper found that ESL learners were more aware of pragmatic violations while EFL learners were more aware of and critical of grammatical errors.

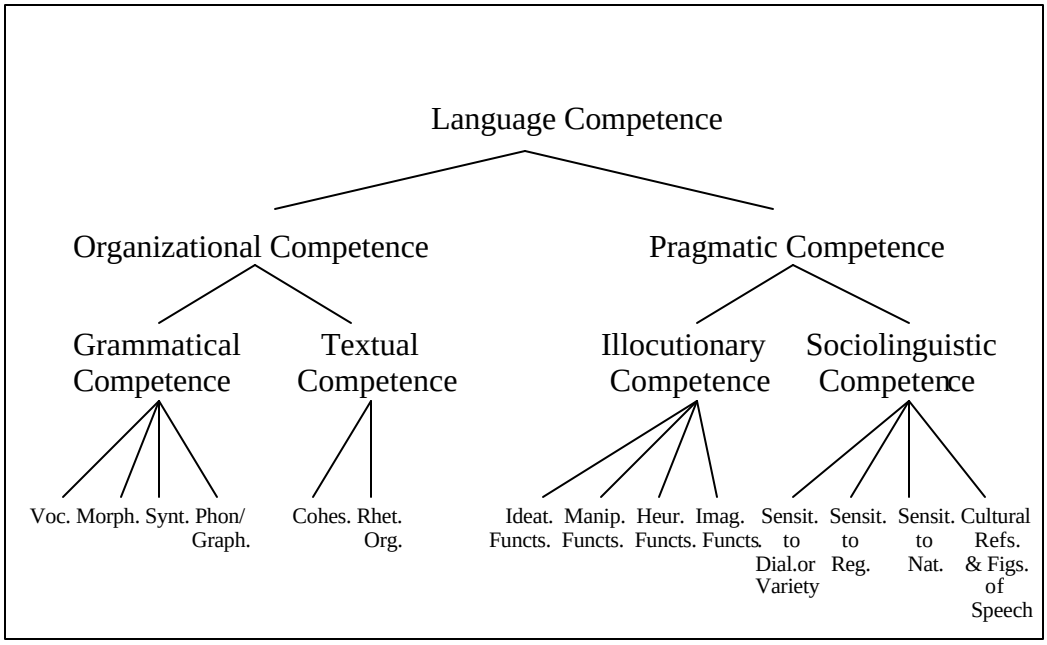
Another interesting phenomenon in pragmatic competence, noted by Savignon (1983:37), is the L2 learners' intentional nonconformity with L2 pragmatics. Since pragmatics are so tightly bound to cultural values and beliefs, L2 speakers often feel a loss of individuality when abandoning L1 pragmatic behaviors, so they avoid making such choices.

There have been some differences of opinion used among researchers in the classification and definition of pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence. Yule & Tarone (1989) placed pragmatic competence within sociolinguistic competence while Bachman (1990) and Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) placed sociolinguistic competence within pragmatic competence. Savignon (1983) also offered different definitions for pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence. Her definition of pragmatics, mentioned earlier, concerns "the relationships between expressions in the formal system of language and anything else outside it; an interdisciplinary field of inquiry concerned with relations between linguistic units, speakers, and extralinguistic facts; roles and uses of language in social contexts" (p. 308). Her

definition of sociolinguistic competence is "the ability to use language appropriate to a given communicative context, taking into account the roles of the participants, the setting, and the purpose of the interaction." (p. 309). Savignon's definitions of pragmatics and sociolinguistics, therefore, agree with those of Bachman that pragmatics covers a wider range while sociolinguistics is a subgroup within pragmatics.

Bachman (1990) developed a diagram to illustrate his theory of language competence, seen in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Bachman's (1990) Model of Language Competence



Source: Bachman, 1990:87

His model contains two main branches, which he labeled "Organizational" and "Pragmatic" competence. Grammatical and textual competence are placed under organizational competence. He claims that grammatical competence includes

knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology, and the graphemic elements of a language. Cohesion and rhetorical organization are within textual competence. Bachman's concept of textual competence is similar to the concepts of discourse competence proposed by Canale and Swain (1984) and Yule and Tarone (1989).

The second main branch of Bachman's (1990) Language Competence Model is labeled "Pragmatic Competence," which includes both illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence. Illocutionary competence refers to the functional use of language while sociolinguistic competence refers to the appropriateness of an utterance to context. Within illocutionary competence are four functions or abilities. These include the ability to (a) express ideas and emotions (ideational functions), (b) get things done (manipulative functions), (c) use language to teach, learn, and solve problems (heuristic functions), and (d) be creative (imaginative functions). Within sociolinguistic competence are four categories called "sensitivities." They include a sensitivity to (a) dialect or variety, (b) register, (c) naturalness (native-like use of language), and (d) cultural references and figures of speech (pp. 87-98). To avoid confusion, henceforth, Bachman's definitions and descriptions of pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence are used for this study.

Hadley (1993:12-22) noted that, according to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) Guidelines that were instituted in 1982 as the first national proficiency standards for educators, pragmatic competence does not appear to form until the L2 learner reaches the intermediate level.[3] At the advanced

[3] For a more complete discussion of ACTFL Guidelines and the United States government's Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) Standards, see Hadley (1993). Briefly, the ACTFL novice level corresponds to the ILR 0/0+ levels, the ACTFL intermediate level corresponds to the ILR 1/1+ levels, the ACTFL advanced level corresponds to the ILR 2/2+ levels, and the ACTFL superior level

ACTFL level some sensitivity to register and appropriateness of certain expressions in a given context is observed. To put this issue into context for the L2 learner and instructor, it is noteworthy that a 1965 study found the median senior L2 major to be at the advanced ACTFL level (Carroll, 1967 cited in Hadley, 1993:24). Studies in the 1980's (Hirsch, 1985; Mayewski, 1984 cited in Hadley, 1993:25) echoed these earlier observations. At the ACTFL superior level many L2 learners are still unable to shift registers easily and sociolinguistic competence is still developing. Only at the top Interagency Roundtable Levels (4 and 5), which are beyond the ACTFL levels, do L2 learners exhibit sociolinguistic competence (Hadley, 1993:12-22). According to the ACTFL scales, the learners chosen for our study ranged from the novice-mid to novice-high levels with a few reaching as high as an intermediate-mid level. Their initial L2 pragmatic competence, therefore, should be nonexistent or just appearing to form.

1.23 Pragmatics in L2 instruction

We now look at the relevance of pragmatics to the L2 classroom and the language learning process. Once researchers began to examine IE in the context of grammatical competence, other researchers (Schmidt 1990; Yule & Tarone 1997) then began to apply the notion of IE to the acquisition of pragmatics. Kasper (1992) claimed that three conditions were necessary for the learner to acquire an appropriate pragmatic competence. She claimed that input must be pertinent and noticed, and that learners must have ample opportunity to develop a high level of communicative control.

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corresponds to the ILR's level 3. The ILR also includes two additional levels, 4 and 5, which are beyond the ACTFL superior level.

Yule and Tarone (1997) discussed the pros and cons of teaching communicative strategies pertaining to pragmatics. They claim that the case against teaching pragmatic strategies is based on the concept that learners already have these communicative strategies from their L1. Accordingly, if the L2 is taught, pragmatic competence will automatically follow by means of a transfer of rules from the L1 to the L2. On the other hand, they claim that the case for overtly teaching L2 pragmatic strategies is based on the belief that such a practice is necessary and also enhances overall language learning.

The problem with the first school of thought outlined by Yule and Tarone (1997) is that it assumes that pragmatics are universal. This assumption, however, is shown by many to be incorrect. Many specific pragmatics realizations are not universal, but rather are specific to languages and ethnographic subgroups within each language (Thomas, 1983; Tannen, 1990). If learners are left to transfer their L1 pragmatic strategies to the L2, they will make many errors. As LoCastro (1997:75) explains, these errors can cause interpersonal conflict. She contends that conventional as well as conversational implicatures give rise to the production and reinforcement of stereotypes and possibly negative generalizations by the participants of each others' cultural identifications. Earlier research by the sociologist Goffman (1963, 1967) showed the disturbing effect on the social order when expected, "normal" reactions are violated or are absent in human interaction. In other words, when expectations are not met by interlocutors, disharmony results. There is also evidence to support claims that L2 speakers' intents and innate abilities may be misevaluated because of pragmatic use that is characteristic of a different socioeconomic status (SES) group or register within a dialect (Pride & Holmes, 1972:288). For example the request "*¿Mande?*" is used by Mexicans of all SES

groups to elicit a repetition of a speaker's unheard or uncomprehended utterance, but is only used by lower SES speakers in Colombia. Likewise, according to the NSs who contributed their intuitions to the learner responses provided in this study, while the "*tú*" informal form of address is increasingly popular in a growing number of contexts in Spain, it is considered to show a lack of education when used in many similar contexts in Peru.

Such phenomena point to the need for language learners to be aware of differing pragmatic features in each specific environment in which they are interacting. These phenomena also indicate a complication involved in formal instruction of L2 pragmatics. Since pragmatics not only differ between, but also among language groups, the language instructor may deduce that there is a need to stimulate the development of a general pragmatic awareness in the L2 learner in addition to the need to teach for specific pragmatic features encountered among different factions of a L2 community. As explained further in Chapters 3 and 4, this need to develop a generalized awareness of and appreciation for pragmatic differences was given great consideration when developing the treatments for this study.

Acknowledging that pragmatics are not universal, Schmidt (1990a, 1990b, 1993a) theorized that L2 pragmatics must be taught overtly in the classroom so that learners do not transfer their L1 pragmatics to the L2 in inappropriate contexts. He claimed that "the necessary condition for pragmatic learning to take place is attention to the pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic information to be acquired" (1993a:21). Schmidt (1993a, 1993b) and Robinson (1995, 1997a) agree that pragmatic awareness is necessary, but it is not likely to be a sufficient condition for the development of pragmatic competence. Kasper and Schmidt (1996:161) noted that L2 pragmatics can

be taught in three ways. These include overt metapragmatic discussions, teaching materials (such as textbook sections that explain that the expression "*te invito*" 'I invite you' in Spanish implies that the speaker will pay the bill), and the indirect means of classroom discourse. The first two approaches are examples of explicit, IE strategies while the last one exemplifies an implicit strategy used in such methodologies as the Natural Approach. This study focuses on the second approach, utilizing video and related form-focused IE activities that foster interactive, independent video viewing as the instructional strategy. Ervin-Tripp (1969) concluded that there are some pragmatic rules that cannot be easily taught, and can only be learned through long and intensive exposure to the L2. Our hypothesis is that extended, form-focused video viewing will provide the exposure needed to hasten this learning process.

Research on pragmatic communicative competence in the context of L2 instruction is most abundant in English as a second (ESL) or as a foreign language (EFL). These findings are not necessarily transferable to instructors and learners of other languages. Learners of English are often more motivated by both integrative and instrumental factors (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Lambert, 1972; Terrell, 1987). Many English learners plan either to immigrate to an English-speaking country and become part of that society (integrative motivation) or to obtain employment in which English is essential (instrumental motivation). Research shows that intrinsic motivation may be more beneficial than extrinsic motivation in acquiring L2 pragmatics (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996:161). English learners are also more often in an immersion environment (ESL) in which motivation is higher because of the immediate need to interact in the foreign environment (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998:253). Also, ESL learners are most often in situations in which their classmates

do not share a common L1. Therefore, the teacher is forced to conduct classroom management matters in the L2, which also helps learners in their pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998:253). On the other hand, those who teach languages other than English more often instruct learners who are fulfilling a language requirement or who have a less powerful motivation to master an L2 quickly. Also, those learning languages other than English tend to be in immersion situations for only short periods of time, if at all.

Although pragmatics research in L2's other than English is relatively scarce, in recent years a growing number of researchers have analyzed and described the development of pragmatic features that affect L2 acquisition in other languages. Researchers in Spanish L2 pragmatics include Fraser and Nolan (1981), García (1993, 1996), Haverkate (1979, 1984, 1990, 1994), Haverkate, Mulder, and Maldonado (1998), Jensen (1982), Koike (1989a, 1994, 1995, 1998), Le Pair (1996), Mir (1992), Montaño-Harmon (1991), Mulder (1993), Salaberry (1999), Uber (1999), and Walters (1979a, 1979b). Some of their descriptive and applied empirical research in Spanish L2 pragmatics is discussed in detail in Chapter Two.[4]

It has now become generally accepted in the field of L2 Applied Linguistics that communicative competence in general and pragmatic competence in particular are important in order for one to be successful in learning an L2. As the field of inquiry concerning the L2 learner's acquisition of Spanish pragmatics is moving toward an application of observations and theories to the Spanish L2 classroom, one of the current challenges in the field is to begin the groundwork necessary to develop viable pedagogical methodologies and materials that best enable learners to develop

[4] See Koike, Pearson, and Witten in Lafford and Salaberry (Eds.) (in press) for a detailed account of research in Spanish L2 pragmatics.

an appropriate L2 pragmatic competence. At this time, research in the application of L2 pragmatic theory to the Spanish L2 classroom is seen in two dissertations (Overfield, 1996; Pearson, 2001), both of which involve overt classroom instruction.

In her extensive study, Overfield (1996) utilized four independent variables: short segments of authentic video; audio tapes; overt instruction, which she called "teacher talk"; and role-play activities. All of these strategies were conducted within the classroom and involved extensive teacher training. While performing these activities, the test group participants were exposed to overt explanations of the grammatical and extragrammatical linguistic features of the L2 pragmatics. Meanwhile, the control group performed the same activities with no overt explanations. Instead, they focused solely on the situation, or the plot, of the interpersonal exchanges. The test group learners performed significantly better in the area of refusals and notably, but not significantly, better in apologies and requests. As in the pilot project conducted for this dissertation, however, it was not possible to determine the relative effect of each of the variables. Since Overfield included more advanced learners (fourth-semester learners) than those chosen for this project, the instructor for her study was able to discuss pragmatics with the learners in Spanish rather than in English. Therefore, they were able to avoid one of the problems encountered in our pilot study.

In another extensive study, Pearson (2001) isolated two combinations of Overfield's independent variables. With one test group, she used short segments of a video prepared for pedagogical purposes that the learners had previously seen, focusing on role-play and overt classroom instruction labeled "metapragmatic classroom discussion." Another test group only performed role plays based on the situations they saw. Her control group watched the same video segments, but did not

participate in either the role play or metapragmatic discussion lessons. She examined the effect of the two different forms of input-enhancing classroom activities that employed the short segments of the video. Pearson's informants had seen the entire episodes of the video in a previous semester so, unlike Overfield's learners, they were aware of the context from which the short segments were extracted. Conversely, Overfield had excerpted short segments from a video with which her participants were not familiar. The test group learners in Pearson's study demonstrated statistical significance in the acquisition of some more pragmatically appropriate forms of apology, some positive trends, but no significant improvement in the acquisition of requests, and no improvement in thanking strategies. She concluded that metapragmatic classroom discussion has a somewhat positive effect on the learners' acquisition of L2 pragmatics.

This current study hopes to expand and complement this body of work. In this study, we develop and analyze additional instructional strategies to teach pragmatics in the Spanish L2 classroom based on current research and theory in the field. One body of research in the field, relevant to the current study, that concerns the acquisition of L2 pragmatics is the theory of interlanguage pragmatics. These theories are outlined in the next section.

1.24 L2 Interlanguage pragmatics theories

The term "interlanguage" was first coined by Selinker (1972) in reference to L2 grammar acquisition. His term referred to the "progressive restructuring" from the L1 and the L2. Several other authors have proposed definitions for the term. Ellis (1985:42) defines interlanguage as "the systemic knowledge of language, which is

independent of both the learner's L1 and the L2 system that he is trying to learn." According to Trosborg (1994:53), interlanguage consists of the language system(s) developed by the learners on their path to acquire the target language. Sharwood-Smith (1994:7) claims that interlanguage refers to the systemic linguistic behavior of learners of a second or other language. He believes that interlanguage theory calls our attention to the possibility of viewing learner language, such as the Finnish of English learners of Finnish, as possessing systemic features that can be studied in their own right. The idea is that interlanguages are not merely imperfect reflections of some target norm, such as educated native speaker Finnish.

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) have been defined by Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993:3) as nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in an L2. They claim that interlanguage pragmatics falls within the fields of both second language acquisition and pragmatics. Sorace (1988:173) posits that L2 learners often have a metalinguistic as well as an interlanguage norm available. By this claim she means that there is a difference between what the learner knows should be used and what the learner actually produces.

Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1996:182) mention the effect of stereotypes in interlanguage pragmatics. For example, they claim that whether L2 learners view the target language group as polite or impolite will affect their likeliness to notice downgraders (e.g., "please," "would you," "perhaps") or upgraders (e.g., "you will," "I decided"). In other words, they will notice behavior that conforms to their stereotypes as a form of self-fulfilling prophecy.

Despite stereotypes that language learners hold regarding a group of L2 speakers, Ervin-Tripp (1969) suggested that, in reality, it is difficult to make a claim that a type of speech behavior in one language is more important than in another language. Ervin-Tripp cites the example of deference in systems of address. She claims that deference may simply be realized in different ways, thus making it difficult to draw comparisons. For example, although there is no informal/formal (*tú/usted*) distinction in the second person singular pronoun in English, one must still choose between such forms of address as "ma'am," "sir," "Mr.," "Mrs.," "Ms.," "Miss," or whether to use another's first name.

There are different theories of interlanguage pragmatics, which will be explained in further detail in Chapter Two. Another body of research relevant to this current study, which is that concerning the use of video in L2 instruction, is examined in the following section.

1.25 Interactive video viewing in L2 instruction

At the same time that the notion of communicative competence was becoming more broadly accepted as a primary goal of L2 instruction, new audiovisual technologies were being developed. The pedagogical utility of these technologies, such as audio and video tapes, was being explored by L2 instructors. By the 1970's audio tapes became widely available to L2 classroom instructors. During the 1980's and 1990's the availability of VCR's made videotapes more accessible to L2

instructors. For example, in many Spanish language programs, video packages such as *Destinos: An introduction to Spanish* (VanPatten, Marks, Teschner, & Dorwick, 1992a), were adopted and began to replace audio lab grammar reinforcement drills.

While audio lab instructional materials overtly taught the grammar of the language and were not commonly adapted to any other use, a shift in emphasis often occurred when the videos were introduced. Partly due to the contemporary L2 teaching methodologies of the time, such as the Natural Approach (Krashen, 1982, 1983, 1985; Terrell, 1977), the videos came to be used mainly as comprehensible input to increase L2 acquisition. One result of this pedagogical shift is that most learners passively watch videos developed to teach language while focusing primarily on the plot. This passive, plot-oriented viewing style is comfortable for learners, because it is the style that is used in watching TV shows and movies in their L1 (Lonergan, 1984). One of the problems associated with this viewing style employed by most learners is that they are disappointed when lower-budget, pedagogical videos do not measure up to Hollywood standards. It has been shown that a negative affect developed during the learning process can have a deleterious influence on learning (Gardener & Lambert, 1972). To address the concern of negative affect, we hypothesize that one result of drawing the learners' attention to linguistic form may be to remind them indirectly that the video's purpose is primarily to teach the language and not to entertain passively. In other words, a change in the learners' viewing expectations may foster a more positive attitude toward the video component of the course.

Another problem with a passive viewing style is that opportunities may be missed to teach learners the formal properties of language, such as L2 pragmatics, through this pedagogical medium. Perhaps because of the growth of IE research, some researchers and instructors have reevaluated the use of video in the L2 classroom. Not only has the L2 research and teaching community considered the use of video to draw the learners' attention to the formal grammatical features of the L2, but also to its pragmatic features. As Lonergan (1984:45) noted, "Exercises in appropriateness [which we interpret to refer to pragmatics] can easily be developed from video presentations of communication."

As stated, an important goal of using IE techniques is to encourage learners to take an active rather than a passive role when viewing video for pedagogical purposes. Lonergan (1984) expounded on the pedagogical benefits of active as opposed to passive video viewing styles. This active participation constitutes interaction with the video medium. Thus, the term "interactive video viewing" is used in this study to denote a learner who is encouraged to be more physically and mentally engaged in the learning process. Although this current study concerns analog video, it is noteworthy that its methodology is adaptable to newer technologies, such as those offered by computers and the internet. These newer technologies purport to encourage increased levels of interactivity that avail the learner of more options (Blyth, 1999; Kelm, 1992, 2000). For example, rather than confronting the limitations posed by the sequential nature of analog video, the learner who views video in a digital format may access specific scenes more readily. This

technology allows the individual the benefits analogous to those of a compact disc over a cassette audio recording in which a certain selection can be located with a single click rather than via a more cumbersome process of fast-forwarding and rewinding. Furthermore, hypermedia links included in newer technologies allow the learners to interact in more ways and to adapt the input to **their indivi**dual learning styles (Blyth, 1999). These newer technologies may also offer additional benefits, such as the ability to reach more learners via growing trends in L2 instruction including distance learning and language for specific purposes in less traditional settings (Kelm, 2000). Hence, future possibilities for the promotion of interactive video viewing in L2 instruction appear quite promising.

In an illuminating study, Altman (1989) videotaped a second language lesson using a TPR approach. Later, he showed the lesson to another group of language learners and found that learners in both groups performed equally well on subsequent L2 exams testing vocabulary. He concluded that viewing video can be as beneficial for L2 vocabulary development as participating in classroom activities. With Altman's findings in mind, it appears that video can serve as a virtual reality experience for language learners. We hypothesize that video can substitute for immersion in the L2 environment in the same way that in Altman's study watching the video lesson substituted for actively participating in the kinetic TPR activities. Also, since much pragmatic information is at the lexical level, it is hypothesized that L2 learners may be able to learn pragmatics from video viewing as they learned vocabulary in Altman's study, especially if the input is enhanced so that they notice

pragmatic features of the L2. We submit that TPR is a type of input enhancement because learners actually perform, or view the vocabulary items as they are performed, rather than hear them only.

Wood (1995:13) maintains that video can help teachers to focus learners' attention more powerfully than other texts and that video may be an especially useful medium with which to incorporate IE activities. Wood also claims (1995:37) that active participation in the video viewing process is necessary to promote language learning. Garza (1996) echoes the importance of the instructor's use of active video viewing in L2 instruction.

1.3 SUMMARY OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS FOR THE STUDY

In this section the main studies cited above that form the theoretical framework for this study are restated and summarized. Bachman's (1990) definition of pragmatics, which has been outlined in a previous section, is used for this study. It is rather wide in scope and includes sociolinguistics. Sharwood-Smith's (1993) concept of input enhancement rather than the concept of consciousness raising is also utilized in this investigtion. Schmidt's (1993a) contention that input enhancement is needed for the development of pragmatic competence (The Noticing Hypothesis) is the main hypothesis tested here. The effects of a form of IE and interactive video viewing on the development of pragmatic competence are compared to an absence of such techniques. If the null hypotheses that the treatments alone do not make a

difference can be rejected, this methodology for developing pragmatic competence can be compared with, and perhaps supplement, the methodologies proposed by other researchers, such as those previously mentioned.

Additional theoretical frameworks for this study include Olshtain and Blum-Kulka's (1985) observation that, in the absence of IE, it may take ten years of immersion in the L2 culture to acquire an appropriate pragmatic competence, Also addressed is Pienneman's (1984) contention that instruction hastens the pace of L2 acquisition. These findings provide additional support for intervention in the L2 classroom with IE strategies. Altman's (1989) findings that video can provide a virtual reality for L2 learning and Koike's (1995) suggestion that video is an ideal instrument for the teaching of pragmatics support the use of video as the medium for the IE strategies employed by this study.

1.4 THE RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Pedagogical problems in teaching L2 pragmatics stem from a dependence on the instructor for illustrating the pragmatics of an L2. First of all, the instructor may not be a native speaker. Also, because there is normally only one instructor in a classroom, the instructor must describe rather than show the native-speaker pragmatic conventions to the learners. This practice involves language that is neither interactive nor contextualized. Furthermore, the "telling" rather than showing of the concept may be too complicated to convey in the L2, thus motivating the use of the L1 in the classroom, which is discouraged in communicative methodologies. Another problem

is that instructors are not able to cover the enormous range of pragmatic features that L2 speakers need in real life encounters in which many variables, such as region, gender, socioeconomic status, and age, are factors (Tannen, 1990; Thomas, 1983). In other words, since pragmatic information and interpretations are context dependent, they need to be learned through contextualized instruction. Video can address most if not all of the above problems. It shows contextualized exchanges between NSs of different backgrounds speaking in the L2, which is the "complete communicative situation" (Lonergan, 1984:3). Furthermore, since Altman's (1989) research has shown that watching video can be as beneficial to the L2 learner as actually participating in the lesson, observing interactions may be as valuable as actually participating in them. Because of these possible benefits offered via video, it may be valuable as a virtual reality instrument to teach learners to be analytical observers of human interactions.

The ultimate goal is that, in whatever environment learners one day find themselves using the L2, they be aware that pragmatic differences occur and open to noticing and emulating them. If this outcome can be achieved, IE, in conjunction with interactive video viewing, may compensate for problems encountered with instruction for pragmatic competence in the classroom environment.

As outlined in the preceding discussion, in many cases, classroom use of video has not advanced as rapidly as most recent pedagogical theories; rather, its use often reflects the "pre-CR/IE era" in which it is used only for non-analytical comprehensible input. In instances in which video is currently used to draw learners'

attention to the formal properties of language, it almost exclusively involves grammar. This usage of video may be attributed to the fact that research on IE first was focused on the development of grammatical competence. Though focusing the learners' attention on grammatical properties most likely has favorable effects on their grammatical competence, it de-emphasizes the other areas of communicative competence, such as pragmatics. To address these other areas of communicative competence, this study applies the more recent IE theories to determine if video can be more broadly utilized in the classroom in order to enhance and promote Spanish L2 pragmatic acquisition. Again, this study is designed mainly to address Schmidt's contention (1990a, 1990b, 1993a, 1993b) that IE is also important for the development of pragmatic competence.

Because each of the four areas of communicative competence are important for the L2 learners, the treatments for this study focus their attention on three areas of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic (including pragmatic), and strategic competence. Discourse competence is not overtly addressed in the treatments because of logistical constraints.[5] The treatments also include sections on cultural knowledge and plot comprehension. These last two areas of inquiry were originally included because they are tested on the uniform departmental final exam that was administered to the participants in this study. These sections are also considered to be intrinsically important, however. For example, the sacrifice of

[5] Since quizzes were already rather long and involved considering the fact that they were worth only five points each, it was decided that no additional skills should be involved. The distracters (items other than pragmatics) included in the quizzes concerned skills and information tested in the Intensive

learners' global comprehension in their effort to find examples of specific linguistic details was not desired. Also, pragmatics are closely tied to the concept of culture.

Although it is pedagogically important to focus learners' attention on all of the aforementioned areas, only the pragmatic components of the data collection instruments are analyzed for this study. Whether or not the treatments specifically affected the learners' grammatical or strategic competence is outside the scope of this study. Nevertheless, these two areas of communicative competence are integral to the acquisition of pragmatics. For example, grammatical ability is necessary to perform differing levels of requests (Koike 1989a) and strategic competence is necessary to comprehend the context in which an utterance is made. In the latter case, a learner might use strategic competence to ascertain that two interlocutors are angry by noticing the context and tone of voice before noticing the way in which a complaint is formulated in the L2. Another benefit of using IE treatments that focus the learners' attention on varied areas of inquiry is that the other questions on the treatments serve as distracters, so that neither the informants nor their instructors are aware of the nature of the study in which they are participating.

Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) show that input enhancement strategies may be even more necessary in the area of pragmatics than they are in other areas of L2 instruction for communicative competence. Their study claims that, with no overt teaching, it could take more than ten years of total immersion in an L2 environment to acquire an appropriate L2 pragmatic competence. In other words, an L2 learner takes

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Spanish Course. Discourse competence was not overtly addressed at this level, except to a limited degree in learners' written compositions.

a very long time to acquire the pragmatics of a foreign language in the absence of IE due to such factors as the interference of the pragmatics of the first language and inadequate L2 knowledge (Koike, 1989a; Trosborg, 1994). It has been demonstrated that pragmatics are taught overtly to a great extent during the first language (L1) acquisition process (Bruner 1981; Gleason, 1980; Gleason, Perlmann, & Greif, 1984; Wolfson, 1984). In the absence of IE, the L1 pragmatics may be incorrectly assumed to be universal by the L2 learner and, thus, transferred to the L2 (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989b). Furthermore, because people learn the pragmatics of their L1 at a very young age and are led to believe that pragmatics are universal, they do not expect others, including nonnative speakers of their L1, to react or respond inappropriately in social interactions. In fact, research shows that individuals can react quite negatively to such behavior (Goffman, 1963, 1967). Therefore, native speakers tend to be more critical of L2 speakers' pragmatic errors than of their grammatical errors (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985; Terrell, 1987).

These assumptions on the part of NSs and NNSs can lead to interpersonal misunderstandings. Since the most common goal of foreign language study is for learners to be able to communicate with native speakers of the L2, instruction that can foment a more positive perception of foreigners' speech acts and more pragmatically appropriate utterances should result in better, and perhaps more, interpersonal communication. These consideration are another motivation for this project designed to increase the L2 learner's pragmatic competence.

Another advantage of employing IE techniques to motivate L2 pragmatics acquisition might be to foster understanding of the cultural aspects of the L2. Understanding this concept may make learners less apt to consider separate languages as one-to-one translations of universally common worldviews. The understanding that language is a manifestation of culture and that a given utterance may draw different reactions in different cultures could enhance L2 language learning in all aspects.

As a result of the increased use of multimedia in the L2 curriculum, teaching pragmatics, which has traditionally been overlooked, is now more accessible. The development of pragmatic competence requires contextualization and interaction, which video can provide (Koike, 1995). Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper (1989) also posit the importance of video in L2 pragmatic acquisition because they claim that video is a means to make the learner aware of situational and social factors present in the communicative act. Therefore, the possibilities to use technology to add a new, extremely practical dimension to language learning are constantly growing and merit examination (Koike 1995).

It is important, however, to note that caveats with using IE strategies in tandem with video viewing have been considered. VanPatten (1989) examined the possibility that attention to grammatical form might affect global comprehension of language and plot while learners view video. He found that overall comprehension can be hindered in some cases. His point is given consideration in the present study to ascertain if any harm is done to the learners' global comprehension while

treatments are given in an attempt to change the way they view L2 videos. The goal is to encourage learners to change from passive to active, analytical video viewers without detracting from their comprehension of the content on the macro level.

1.5 GOALS FOR THE STUDY

A goal of this study is to bridge the gap between theory and L2 methodology as it applies to teaching pragmatics in the L2 classroom. As was previously mentioned and as is discussed in greater detail in Chapter Two, there is much research available concerning L2 pragmatic acquisition and also there are various applied studies that shed light on L2 learners' comprehension and use of various L2 pragmatic features. There are also several manuals for practitioners that outline strategies for using video in the classroom including those by Allan (1985), Altman (1989), Gillespie (1985), Lavery (1984), Lonergan (1984), Mount, Mount, and Toplin (1988), Stempleski and Tomalin (1990), and Wood (1995). Although some of these manuals indirectly suggest ways to teach L2 pragmatics, it is done within the context of overall communicative competence. This study intends to bridge the gap between the aforementioned studies and the manuals to provide sound evidence and support for a methodology that specifically teaches pragmatics to language learners.

Given the aforementioned claims that pragmatic competence is of much importance to overall L2 communicative ability and that video is an effective medium by which to present contextualized, interactive language, the next step is to construct and test a methodology through which to implement a pragmatics component in the L2 curriculum. Applied research in this field of inquiry is scarce, so a great deal of

trial and error was necessary in order to lay the necessary methodological groundwork for this study. Initially, a pilot project was designed to address this need (Witten, 1999), involving the manipulation of IE in conjunction with independent video viewing and overt classroom instruction in an attempt to develop the learners' L2 pragmatic competence. The results, laid out in greater detail in Chapter Three, demonstrated an increase in the learners' pragmatic awareness and competence; however, it was not possible to discern the extent to which each of the two independent variables had accounted for the learners' improved pragmatic competence. The goal of this study, therefore, is to minimize overt classroom instruction and to focus on input enhancement in conjunction with interactive video viewing as a means to teach L2 pragmatics.

Although future research into effective pedagogical approaches to promote pragmatic competence in the L2 learner will probably find that a combination of the variables outlined above (e.g., metapragmatic discussion, role play, interactive video viewing) is the most effective, it is important to examine each variable in relative isolation. Isolating each variable to the greatest extent possible and examining each variable in relative isolation will help determine if and to what extent each variable contributes to the overall learning of L2 pragmatics. This information can play a role in the development of teaching materials because the focus can be placed on the most effective variable(s).

Another goal of this study is to isolate and examine the variable of video viewing to the greatest extent possible due to the pedagogical reality that the most optimal instructional strategy, which may include classroom metapragmatic discussion, is not always the most available or practical one. Therefore, a goal is to provide practitioners with a methodology that may be beneficial even if implemented

as an out-of-class activity with little classroom support. The implementation of the methodology for this study requires minimal teacher training in order to be incorporated into an institution's curriculum. Institutions with large language departments and those with many adjunct/part-time instructors may not find a methodology that requires extensive teacher training feasible. For example, Overfield (1996) expressed great frustration at training just one instructor in the methodology she developed. Pearson (2001) also claimed that she may have obtained disappointing results in the area of teaching thanking strategies because it was the first metapragmatic lesson taught, and there may have been a "learning curve" for the instructors who participated in the study. In addition to addressing logistical problems encountered with instructor training, a methodology that emphasizes independent video viewing and out-of-class activities addresses instructor concerns involving limited class time available for the incorporation of additions to a current curriculum.

With Altman's findings in mind, this study attempts to encourage learners to use the video as a virtual reality experience as did Altman's subjects. That is, the video is used to substitute for immersion in the L2 environment in the same way that Altman's study used the video to substitute for a classroom lesson. The short-term goal is for the video to allow learners to apply analytical skills in observing pragmatic similarities and differences between their L1 and L2. The long-term goal of our IE instructional strategy is for learners to transfer the analytical skills that were developed for the video component of the course to "real-life" L2 situations.

Two possible intervening variables are considered in this study, which are affect and time on task. To examine the learners' attitudes toward our methodology, their reactions toward the video and its use in the course were solicited. The ultimate

goal is to determine if input-enhanced interactive video viewing results in a greater sense of purpose, leading to a better attitude toward this component of the course, which might in turn positively influence the development of L2 pragmatic competence. In regard to time on task, if it can be determined that the learners using this methodology had or chose to dedicate more time to the video component of the course, this factor might also exert a positive influence on their development of L2 pragmatic competence.

In conclusion, this study contributes to the field of L2 applied linguistics by adding a new dimension to the body of Spanish L2 applied pragmatics research. It should help provide an underlying theoretical basis on which to develop L2 pragmatics curricula. Either separately or in conjunction with other methods, the methodology developed for this research project is ultimately intended to aid practitioners in the development of materials to teach pragmatics in the Spanish L2 classroom.

1.6 OVERVIEW OF THE DISSERTATION

Chapter One presented the topic of this study and contextualized it within its theoretical framework. In Chapter Two, the research questions, an in-depth review of related literature, and theoretical foundations of this research are provided. Several of the concepts that have been mentioned thus far and others are treated to provide for a more complete understanding of the methodology used and the interpretation and analysis of the data collected. Chapter Three describes the data collection methodology used for an experiment designed to determine the effects of one

particular input enhancement technique and interactive video viewing strategies on learners' awareness and use of Spanish L2 pragmatic forms.

The fourth chapter presents results of analyses of the data collected to discover whether learners exposed to IE strategies have a better understanding and knowledge of some of the pragmatic features of Spanish than do those who watch a video program without the benefit of such input enhancement activities. In addition to analyzing the quantitative differences between the two groups, qualitative differences between the test and control groups are also explored to determine which facets of the input enhancement strategies appear to be more or less successful and why. Via separate items on the feedback instruments, the analysis also examines if global comprehension, time on task, and affective factors are influenced by these input enhancement and interactive video viewing strategies. Finally, conclusions are drawn in Chapter Fivc on how this particular input enhancement technique and interactive video viewing may affect learners' awareness and use of Spanish L2 pragmatic competence when applied in a L2 curriculum. The contributions of this study to the field are outlined, applications for this research to the classroom are suggested, and future implications and directions for this research are explored.

Chapter Two: Review of the Literature

2.1 Introduction and the research questions

In light of the research reviewed and general areas of inquiry outlined in Chapter One, the specific questions to be addressed in this study are:

1. What is the role of conscious awareness in the learning of L2 pragmatic features?
2. How can interactive video viewing enhance pragmatic input?
3. How does form-focused input enhancement affect learners' global comprehension?

This chapter outlines and examines relevant theories and literature in order to address and discuss the research questions and the related issues. Some of the studies and theories that are examined come specifically from the field of pragmatics while others address the acquisition of grammar. Only those grammar-oriented theories and studies that either influenced pragmatics theories or that can be applied to the acquisition of pragmatics are mentioned in the current study. The relevance of grammar-oriented research to the field of pragmatics is explained.

This chapter first explores some theories of first language acquisition that are relevant to an understanding and explanation of L2 acquisition theories. Next, communication and speech act theory, which are integral to the study of pragmatics, are examined. Attention is then given to the processes involved in adult L2 pragmatics acquisition. Various theories of interlanguage concerning the concepts of transfer and restructuring are explored in terms of their influence on L2 pragmatics acquisition. Since this present study employs input enhancement strategies, the literature regarding IE as it influences L2 acquisition and L2 instruction is discussed

in terms of its importance to the development of L2 pragmatics. In response to concerns that IE strategies may negatively interfere with learners' global comprehension (VanPatten, 1989; 1990), the relationship between IE and global comprehension is explored in this chapter and in the present study. Next, research involving the use of video in the L2 classroom is examined since video was deliberately chosen as the medium to teach pragmatics for the present study. Finally, research regarding the influence of learner affect on L2 learning is considered because of the determination that affect is a possible intervening variable between the independent variables (IE and interactive video viewing) and the dependent variable (L2 pragmatics awareness) of the present study.

2.2 First language (L1) acquisition: Implications for L2 acquisition

Before discussing L2 acquisition, some theories of first language (L1) acquisition are briefly examined because these theories affect the way some researchers explain L2 learning. Two schools of thought have wielded much influence concerning the relationship between L1 and L2 learning. One school contends that L2 acquisition is similar to L1 acquisition (Asher, 1977; Krashen & Terrell, 1983) and another contends that it is quite different (Bickerton, 1984; Schachter, 1990; Schumann, 1978; Swain & Lapkin, 1989; White, 1987). In addition to this controversy, the present chapter also explores the contention that the L1 may have a strong effect on L2 learning because of a phenomenon known as transfer (Gass & Selinker, 1983; Lado, 1957; White, 1988).

There are several theories of L1 acquisition that may be useful to understanding L2 acquisition. Bruner (1978:243) stated that "To learn something

about a domain requires that you already know something about the domain…there is no such thing as ab initio learning pure and simple." This belief is related to a concept known as Schema Theory, which posits that one acquires a new piece of information by attaching it to previously acquired information (Anderson & Spiro, 1978; Ausubel, 1961; Ausubel, 1978.)[6] As Schmidt (1993a:27) explains, explicit learning involves searching the memory for related knowledge, also referred to as "bootstrapping." Pinker (1984) posits that humans learn their L1 via semantic bootstrapping while Gleitman and Gleitman (1979) and Phillips (1973) propose that the L1 is learned via syntactic bootstrapping. In other words, children may learn language by attaching new vocabulary items and structures to old ones on the basis of meaning or on the basis of form and function, or as a combination of both. A related concept, which facilitates both L1 and L2 learning, is referred to as "scaffolding." Instead of describing the cognitive development within an individual, as bootstrapping does, scaffolding describes the learning that occurs as a result of the social interaction between individuals. As DiCamilla and Anton (1997:614) explain,

> This concept [scaffolding] originates with the work of Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) and serves as a metaphor for the interaction between an expert and a novice engaged in a problem-solving task. Scaffolding involves the expert taking control of those portions of a task that are beyond the learner's current level of competence, thus allowing the learner to focus on the elements within his or her range of ability.

L1 researchers (Gleitman & Gleitman, 1979; Newport, Gleitman, & Gleitman, 1977) have observed and documented a phenomenon known as "motherese," which is a special "language" or set of speech patterns used by caretakers, and even L2 language teachers, that appears to assist the language learner in a scaffolding process.

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[6] For further discussion and a synthesis of research related to Schema Theory, see Schallert (1982).

Motherese is spoken slowly, using exaggerated intonation and simple syntactic constructions.

The research indicates that the acquisition of L1 pragmatics differs somewhat from that of L1 grammar. These L1 acquisition processes have ramifications for the importance of IE in the acquisition of L2 pragmatics. Though intuitively it may seem that children primarily learn the grammar of their L1 from caretakers (i.e., via something approximating IE strategies), research does not support this assumption (Braine, 1971; Brown & Hanlon, 1970; Bruner, 1978, 1981; Morgan & Travis, 1989). Chomsky (1965, 1972) theorized that humans possess a species-specific language acquisition device (LAD), which predisposes them to learn whatever language(s) they are exposed to as young children.[7] Some researchers who have studied the acquisition of L1 and L2 grammar in childhood and subsequent L2 learning have developed a concept widely known as the "critical period." In his research, Lenneberg (1967) found that normal children will master any language to which they are substantially exposed before the onset of puberty, but that after this time, the "window of opportunity" for perfect language mastery seems to be closed. After this theorized window of opportunity or critical period ends, language no longer appears to be learned intuitively through an apparatus such as Chomsky's proposed LAD, but

[7] Such theories that are based on the belief that language acquisition is an innate human ability rather than a learned behavior are referred to as "nativist" theories (Lenneberg, 1967). Research by Morgan and Travis (1989) shows that children do not seem to respond to grammatical correction from caretakers, but seem to acquire the L1 on their own time and development schedules. More evidence for this observation is demonstrated by research that shows that parents seldom correct grammatical errors, but rather they respond to content (Brown & Hanlon, 1970; Hadley, 1993:48). Content here refers to both the truth value and pragmatic appropriateness of utterances. Other research shows that as children get older, caretakers provide less negative feedback and correct fewer grammatical errors (Hirsh-Pasek, 1984). In their 1984 study, Hirsh-Pasek found that parents usually correct fewer grammatical errors made by their 3-5 year olds than those made by their 2 year old children. This indicates that caretakers intuitively realize that the effort of grammatical error correction is futile, and they eventually limit this practice.

must be learned analytically via other functions of the brain.[8] In conclusion, the L1 acquisition research indicates that techniques such as IE strategies appear unnecessary for L1 grammar acquisition, but may be more important in L2 grammar acquisition. Although it may seem that grammar and pragmatics acquisition are similar, the research indicates that the same process does not appear to apply directly to L1 and L2 pragmatics acquisition.

Researchers in the field of L1 pragmatics acquisition generally conclude that parents and caretakers do teach pragmatics to children, so something approximating IE strategies are employed. In fact, research conducted by Brown and Hanlon (1970) and Hadley (1993) found that parents seldom correct grammatical errors, but rather respond to the truth value and pragmatic appropriateness of a child's utterances. These findings indicate that caretakers may intuitively realize that a form of IE is needed for a child to learn pragmatics but not grammar. These findings may also indicate that parents consider pragmatics more important than grammar.

Gleason, Perlmann, and Greif (1984), Gleason (1980), and Ochs (1979b) note that in all cultures that have been observed, children receive direct, explicit pragmatic feedback and are taught politeness strategies. An example in American culture is when, upon hearing a request, a parent asks a child "What is the magic word?" A benefit that children have in the acquisition of L1 pragmatics is that, when young children leave the home and enter the school environment, they bring with them an eagerness to please others, especially the new authority figure embodied in the

[8] In their later research, Johnson and Newport (1989) refined Lenneberg's earlier theory and proposed that the critical period ends less dramatically and, in fact, fades over time beginning around the age of ten. Their research shows that before this intuitive language learning ability deterioration begins, virtually all humans master languages to which they are exposed at nearly the same level, but that after the onset of deterioration, there is increasing diversity among individuals concerning the level of language mastery that each individual will ultimately achieve.

teacher. According to Holmes (1984), this eagerness predisposes them to learn the sociocultural rules of the new setting quickly. Along with this eagerness to please is the reality that the absence of correct pragmatic behavior is noticeable and leads to harsh judgment from others (Gleason, 1980). According to Becker (1994:142-143), parents recognize that pragmatic skills reflect proper and good parenting and also affect how their children are judged by their peers, teachers, etc., which explains why parents prompt and model pragmatic behavior to their children. In a study conducted with Brazilian children, Koike (1989b) found that by the age of four most children are already able to recognize the most polite form to use in a given situation.

Another important difference between the findings from L1 grammar and pragmatics research is that evidence of a LAD or critical period for pragmatics acquisition is not available. This finding indicates that the pragmatics of a L2 may be acquired in the same manner as those of the L1; for example, via a strategy approximating IE. In L2 communication, NNS adults are expected to have had the same training that NS adults had in their youth and to know what is appropriate to say in a given situation (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1996:187). The expectation that adults will not make pragmatic errors when speaking in the L2 is rooted in this intuitive belief that pragmatics are universal. This belief is probably held at the unconscious level since, according to research (Wolfson, 1984), L1 pragmatics are understood mostly on an unconscious level. Furthermore, Schmidt (1990b) found that it is difficult for people to articulate the processes they use to produce pragmatically correct speech acts. This finding indicates that the knowledge was learned either intuitively or so early in childhood that it is not a part of conscious memory. It may sound contradictory to say that L1 pragmatics are explicitly taught by caretakers and then to claim that they are understood at an unconscious level. An

explanation is that the acquisition of pragmatics is not only begun early in life, but is also quite complex. While caretakers openly solicit expressions like "please" and "thank you" from children, there are many "frozen routines" (Schmidt, 1993a:32) that are taught less directly. Frozen routines encompass such expressions as "Well I'll let you go now. . ." when speaking on the phone in American English, or *"con permiso"* 'excuse me' when walking between people and *"bueno"* 'well' when beginning a sentence in Spanish. In fact, frozen routines include simple utterances as well as hints and more complex structures in every language. All these thousands of expressions are not taught only to L1 speakers. They are more likely learned indirectly or through constant repetition in similar circumstances. There is also some evidence, however, that at least some pragmatic behaviors may be intuitive. For example, studies by Cazden (1970) indicate that children as young as three years old modify their speech for younger children. Of course, whether such behavior is the result of innate ability or from observing role models is not clear. LePair (1996:652) contends that, since pragmatics are not universal, pragmatic competence is not inherent in behavior itself, but rather is a function of social evaluation and context. In conclusion, research does not indicate an innate propensity for pragmatics and suggests that its acquisition is largely a function of nurture (such as IE strategies) rather than nature.

There are many theories of communication that attempt to explain the pragmatic development that facilitates all language use among humans. These theories are relevant to communication in both a L1 and a L2. Therefore, they are explored in the following section, which follows this discussion of L1 pragmatics acquisition and its ramifications for L2 pragmatics acquisition and precedes a more in-depth discussion of L2 pragmatics acquisition.

2.3 THEORIES OF COMMUNICATION

Grice (1975) developed what he called the "Cooperative Principle" to explain the phenomenon of human communication. He claims that communication is possible because humans follow four general rules of human interaction, which he called "maxims." The maxims apply to what people say and hear in a conversation. Grice named the four maxims as quantity, quality, relation, and manner. He proposed that interlocutors expect people to be concise, honest, relevant, and clear when they interact. Grice claimed that, when one or more of these maxims are violated, communication problems occur. Lakoff (1973) proposed a theory of politeness to explain the rules governing human communication. This theory holds that a goal of communication is to maintain a good relationship between interlocutors, who attempt to be clear, honest, brief, and polite. Leech (1983) outlined a "Politeness Principle," which serves to maintain the good relations deemed necessary to Grice's Cooperative Principle.

The most well-known model of politeness is that of Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987). According to this model, both the speaker (S) and hearer (H) are motivated by the concept of "face" during communication. The concept of face has been defined by Goffman (1967:5) as "an image of self, delineated in terms of approved social attributes." Brown and Levinson (1978:66) add that face is "something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction." They claim that "in general, people cooperate (and assume each other's cooperation) in maintaining face in interaction, such cooperation being based on mutual vulnerability of face."

Brown and Levinson propose the concepts of both positive and negative face. "Positive face" refers to the desire to be a part of the group and to have one's desires be of interest to others, while "negative face" represents the desire for independence, autonomy, and "personal space." Positive face is realized by such devices as avoiding disagreement, joking, and using in-group identity markers. Negative face is manifested by such tactics as minimizing imposition on others, apologizing, and showing deference. In order to avoid face-threatening acts, speakers may use "mitigation" strategies (Fraser & Nolan, 1981). Examples of mitigation strategies are the use of "please" at the end of a command/request or the tag question "don't you agree?" at the end of a suggestion.

Whether a cultural group tends to put more value on positive or negative face depends on that culture's hierachy of values. Wierzbicka (1991) provides us with many examples of this phenomenon. Two examples, which compare Polish to Anglo-Saxon cultural norms, illustrate her point. In Anglo-Saxon culture, if guests state that they do not want to eat more, the host generally acquiesces, while in Polish culture, the host usually keeps insisting that the guest take more food. Likewise, when guests state that they are ready to leave, the Anglo-Saxon host generally allows them to go while the Polish host generally attempts to prevent them from leaving. This differing behavior does not indicate differing standards of politeness between the two cultures, but rather a different hierarchy of values in how politeness is manifested. Wierzbicka (p. 52) concludes that if one's own view of what is good for another person does not coincide with the view of that person, Anglo-Saxon culture

requires that one should rather respect the other person's wishes and allow autonomy than do what is thought to be good for the person. But, she notes that Polish culture tends to resolve the dilemma in the opposite way. In other words, these examples indicate that the Anglo-Saxon culture tends to place more value on the concept of negative face while Polish culture tends to value the concept of positive face.

The problems that such a cultural difference could pose for the L2 learner are clear. If Anglo-Saxon L2 speakers of Polish transfer their L1 pragmatic norms to Polish, they appear cold and uncaring while the Polish L2 speakers in a similar situation appear pushy and presumptuous. The negative reaction that L2 speakers might receive in such a situation would be disconcerting, because the L2 speakers would be behaving in the way that they were taught and that they believed to be polite. In these situations an appreciation for the different pragmatics of the two cultures on the part of the interlocutor(s) could alleviate negative interpersonal reactions. While Wierzbicka (1991) provides the above and several other examples using distinct Western cultures, she also claims that Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of politeness is too Western in orientation and does not provide for the complexities seen in several non-Western languages.

Unlike the above theories of communication, which are sociological and interpersonal in nature, Sperber and Wilson (1986) propose a theory that is more psychological/cognitive in nature. Their theory, called the "Relevance Principle," states that interlocutors assume that what is being said is relevant. For example, if a person comes by an office and asks "Do you have a phone?", it is assumed that the

question is most likely not seeking a yes/no response (unless the person works for the phone company or is taking an inventory of telephones). Assuming there must be some relevance to the speaker's question, the hearer will most likely infer that the speaker's intention is to use the hearer's phone, because it is the most logical or relevant interpretation given the context of the situation. Escandell-Vidal (1996; 1998a; 1998b) proposes a model of politeness based on Sperber and Wilson's (1986) Relevance Principle. Using Wierzbicka's data on Polish, Escandell-Vidal shows that questions such as "Can you help me?" are interpreted as requests in English and Spanish, but as literal ability questions in Polish. She claims that English and Spanish interlocutors only interpret questions with this construction as requests because of a speech convention in their languages. According to this theory, politeness is not established by the social need to maintain face, but by the cognitive ability to assign relevance to an utterance within a given context by speakers who share similar cultural assumptions and linguistic conventions.

2.31 Speech acts

Within the framework of human communication theory, specific utterances have been labeled as "speech acts." Linguistic philosophers Austin (1962, 1965) and Searle (1969, 1975, 1976, 1979, 1983) did much of the ground-breaking research and analysis on speech acts. Austin (1962) explained the nature of a speech act in claiming that "In saying something, a speaker also does something." That is, every utterance fulfills a pragmatic function. Searle classified speech acts according to their

function or intent (illocutionary point). He specified five categories of illocutionary acts.[9] For a speech act to be successful, Austin (1965) and Searle (1965, 1975, 1976) said that it must meet certain conditions, which they called "felicity conditions." For example, Levinson (1983:229) says that there are three categories of felicity conditions that are necessary for declaratives, which are pronouncements or statements of fact, to be successful in achieving their intended purpose. These are: (1a) there must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect; (1b) the circumstances and persons must be appropriate as specified by the behavior; (2) the procedure must be executed correctly and completely; and (3) the persons must have the requisite thoughts, feelings, and intentions, as specified in the procedure, and if consequent conduct is specified, then the relevant parties must do so. Therefore, for example, if an unqualified person says (declares) "I pronounce you man and wife," the speaker has violated category (1b). This violation renders the speech act unsuccessful and infelicitious, because the couple will not be married.

Speech acts can be explained as "conventionalized utterances" (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990). For example, all languages have conventionalized expressions that Searle (1981) called "indirect directives." In English these include such utterances as "Can you…?," "Could you…?," "I would like…," "Would you mind…?," "It would be better if…," and "I would appreciate it if you would…" According to Searle, in addition to the principles of successful conversation outlined by researchers such as Grice, these conventions help facilitate communication.

Speech acts fall into many subcategories, including requests, apologies, complaints, compliments, salutations, suggestions, rebukes, and many more. The

[9] The five speech act categories outlined by Searle are assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations.

study of pragmatics often analyzes utterances in terms of specific speech acts. Research (Harlow, 1990; Koike, 1989a; Phillips, 1993, Witten, 1999) has shown that L2 learners can recognize and correctly categorize L2 speech acts. The following sections outline some of the research that has been done on speech acts that relates to the acquisition of L2 pragmatics.

2.311 Apologies

Bergman and Kasper (1993), García (1989), Olshtain (1989), and Trosborg (1986) are among the researchers who have studied apologies in L2 contexts. Apologies are classified as "expressives" and their goal is to maintain social harmony (Trosborg, 1994:373). They are expressions of regret and acknowledgements of responsibility. They occur in all cultures, though they can cause misunderstandings between NSs and NNSs because the degree of the offensiveness of an act for which an apology is made varies among cultures. For example, arriving late for an appointment is a more serious offense in some cultures than it is in others. Apologies have the potential to threaten the face of the speaker. Olshtain and Cohen (1983) have outlined five types of apologies, two of which are general and three of which are specific to a particular situation. The two general types are: (a) formulaic, explicit apologies in which a performative verb is used, such as "I'm sorry," "I regret…," and "I apologize for…."; and (b) expressions of responsibility, such as "I dialed the wrong number." The three situationally specific type of apologies include: (a) explanations, such as "I did x, because… (excuse or reason given)"; (b) offers of repair, such as "I'll pay to have that repaired"; and (c) promises of nonreoccurrence, such as "I promise I'll never do it again." Intensifiers, such as "really" and "very" or

downgraders, such as “I’m sorry. Please accept my apology,” can also be employed with apologies.

In their extensive cross-cultural speech act realization patterns (CCSARP) study, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) delineated six categories for apologies. These categories include taking on responsibility (“It’s my fault”), an explanation of what caused the offense (“The bus was late”), an offer of repair (“I’ll pay for the damage”), a promise of forbearance (“It’ll never happen again”), intensification, which may include an expression of explicit concern for the hearer, and downgrading (“Sorry, but we never start on time”). In another study that drew upon some of the CCSARP data, Olshtain (1989:171) found a striking similarity for apology strategies among the languages that she examined, which were Hebrew, Canadian French, Australian English, German, and Argentine Spanish. Takahashi and Beebe (1983) compared apologies in English and Japanese, however, and concluded that there were great differences between those two languages.

Mir (1992) studied Spanish native speakers’ perceptions of English NS apologies and found that they believe that English speakers apologize more often and make more offers of repair than they do. Because of this perception, Spanish speakers of English make more apologies when speaking English, though they do not increase their repertoire of strategies to make these apologies. Mir speculates that learners may apologize more frequently, but do not acquire new strategies because they have a lack of L2 linguistic knowledge or because they do not understand the importance of other apology strategies in the L2. Thus, they simply transfer L1 apology strategies.

García (1989) studied L2 apologies by American NSs of English and Venezuelan learners of English who were asked to participate in role plays in which

they apologized to a friend for not attending a party. She found that Venezuelans tended to use strategies invoking the concept of positive face (solidarity), while the Americans preferred strategies invoking the concept of negative face in deferential, self-effacing strategies. García found that when Venezuelans transferred their L1 strategies to the L2, disharmony resulted, but that adopting American forms of apology led to more harmonious reactions. She concluded that learners of an L2 should err on the side of being more deferential and then adjust to less deferential forms when it seems appropriate at later times.

Trosborg (1994) conducted a study to compare apology strategies of L1 and L2 speakers of English and Danish. Though the two languages are similar, she found some linguistic problems, including transfer of L1 forms that are inappropriate for NS norms (p. 405).

2.312 Complaints

Trosborg (1994:311) classifies complaints as "expressives" or moral judgments. They are potentially threatening to the face of the hearer. They express displeasure or annoyance in response to a past or ongoing situation. Complaints voiced to a third person are often referred to as "griping" or "gossiping." According to Olshtain and Cohen (1990), there are two main goals and three main strategies for formulating complaints. The goals are to point out a violation in order to decrease the anger and frustration of the speaker. The strategies include mild, explicit, and severe approaches. In a mild complaint, the speaker may express the consequences that resulted from the hearer's action in order to elicit empathy. In an explicit and

untenuated complaint, the speaker is apt to mention the hearer's responsibility for the act. In a severe complaint a threat or warning may be articulated by the speaker.

Trosborg (1994:313) found that people often use mitigating devices, or a subgroup of downgraders, such as avoiding mention of the hearer, in order to soften the effect of complaints. In her research, NNSs have problems employing such strategies, even at advanced levels of L2 acquisition. NNS's complaints were not as well received by NSs as the complaints of other NSs because they contained fewer support strategies and included fewer upgraders and downgraders. In their complaint strategies, NNSs often failed to adjust for social position and gave up more easily than NSs. Trosborg (1994:371) concluded that these NNS strategies were more likely the result of L2 deficiency than of L1 interference.

Other detailed studies on complaints have been conducted by such researchers as Olshtain and Weinbach (1987).

2.313 Compliments

According to Olshtain and Cohen (1990) compliments serve two purposes. They may simply state a truthful reaction or they may be used to promote solidarity, referred to as "positive face" in Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory. According to Olshtain and Cohen, the use of compliments to promote solidarity is especially common in American English.

In her examination of complimenting behavior in American English, Wolfson (1989) found that compliments were more common between social equals, who were potentially friends, than between other groups of individuals.

A speech act somewhat related to that of complimenting is that of expressing gratitude or thanking. Ragone (1998) studied the act of thanking in response to compliments and found that English speakers are more likely to respond to compliments with a simple thanking utterance than are Spanish and French speakers, who are more likely to deflect, downplay, or ignore compliments. She found that English speakers tended to transfer their L1 strategies to L2 production.[10]

2.314 Requests

Trosborg (1994:188) classifies requests as an "impositive" speech act because they impose on the hearer. According to Haverkate (1979), requests fall in a continuum from direct to indirect. Haverkate's proposed continuum for Spanish requests can be seen in Figure 2.1 below.

Figure 2.1: Continuum of Directness/Indirectness in Requests

Direct ----------Indirect

1	2	3	4
a) Cierre la puerta (Close the door) b) ¿Podrías cerrar la puerta? (Could you close the door?) c) Quisiera que cerraras la puerta. (I would like you to close the door.)	a) Quisiera que se cerrara la puerta. (I would like the door to be closed.) b) Es necesario cerrar…(It is necessary to close…	a) ¿Está cerrada la puerta? (Is the door closed?) b) ¿Está abierta la puerta? (Is the door open?)	a) Hace un frío tremendo aquí. (It's terribly cold in here.)

Source: Haverkate, 1979:105

[10] Other examples of research in this area include studies by Eisenstein and Bodman (1993) and Haverkate (1994) on expressions of gratitude that involve ESL learners and Spanish and Dutch speakers respectively, and studies by Haverkate (1990, 1994) on general politeness strategies in Spanish and Dutch. Fraser and Nolan (1981) and Blum-Kulka (1987, 1989) are among the researchers who have investigated expressions of gratitude as they are related to NS and NNS performance in Spanish and Hebrew, respectively.

Example (1b) "Could you close the door?" in Haverkate's model is often referred to as an example of a "conventionally indirect request." Such requests refer to one's ability or willingness and are highly routinized in many languages (Trosborg, 1994:197). Kasper (1997:351) classifies Haverkate's category #4 as "non-conventionally indirect requests" or hints. In this example, saying "I'm cold," is a way of inferring that one would like the host to close the door. Trosborg (1994:42) shows that Western cultures prefer indirectness in requests, expecially in English. According to Ervin-Tripp (1976), politeness is the chief motivation for indirectness.

Fraser and Nolen (1981) compared English and Spanish requesting behavior. They asked 25 native Spanish speakers living in the United States to rank expressions in terms of deference. Sentences that contained a conditional verb were ranked highest (e.g., *"Te agradecería si hicieras eso"* 'I would appreciate it if you would do that') while imperatives (e.g. *"Haz eso"* 'Do that.') received the lowest rating. Fraser and Nolen then compared these rankings to those given by native English speakers and found many similarities. They concluded that Spanish and English pragmatics were quite similar.

In their CCSARP study, however, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) compared Australian English, Argentine Spanish, German, and Hebrew, and they found Spanish and English to be the most dissimilar languages with respect to pragmatics including requests. Nine levels of requests were outlined ranging from the most transparent (direct) to the most opaque (indirect) strategies employed. In the CCSARP, the authors also explained the function of "alerters" (e.g., "Hey," or using the requestee's name), "downgraders," which make requests more polite, (e.g., "please," using the past rather than present tense, or questions rather than statements), "upgraders,"

which increase the impact of an utterance on the hearer, (e.g. "really," "must," "*no seas malo*" 'don't be unkind'), "supporters" (promises of future reciprocity), "conventional indirectness" (e.g., "Could you…?," "Can you…?"), and "nonconventional indirectness" (hints). Blum-Kulka (1989) states that requests with the can/could ability modal are quintessential examples of conventional indirectness, because there is a balance between the literal and intended meanings and ability rather than willingness can be inferred. This type of request is "safe" for both the S and the H, whereas more direct requests are often avoided because they can be more face threatening.

In a study designed to explore the transfer of L1 speech act knowledge and pragmatic competence in using speech acts, Koike (1989a) asked 27 first-semester Spanish learners to write what they would say in different situations. In the first situation, learners had to ask for a glass of water, while in the second, they were directed to request that a visitor in their home get out of their father's favorite chair. The data suggest that, since the second situation involved a face threatening act, a more complicated speech act was needed. There were few indirect request forms, hints, and distractors used to respond to this particular situation, however. Koike claims that this finding probably occurs because these indirect speech act forms are more grammatically difficult and would represent an extra load for the learners beyond expressing their point. The direct commands and assertions, which the learners gave more often, are more efficiently and easily expressed, but they are less polite. This research contradicts Hatch's claim (1992) that L2 learners learn the most polite forms in order to avoid social blunders. Scarcella's research (1991) with ESL learners also contradicted Hatch's claim and found that learners first used

imperatives, then added downgraders, and only used more appropriate forms as their overall linguistic ability improved.

LePair (1996) compared the requesting behavior of respondents who were NSs of either Dutch or Spanish. His Dutch participants had completed three years of university Spanish. He found that Spanish NSs used more direct requesting strategies than NSs of Dutch. Consequently, he found that when Dutch NSs spoke Spanish, they used less direct strategies than the Spanish NSs. He found that conventional indirectness was the most common strategy used by both Dutch and Spanish speakers, but that it was realized differently by NSs and NNSs. LePair (1996:662) concludes that one reason for pragmatic miscommunication is that NNSs may interpret a hint literally. For example a NS may say "*¿Por qué no te quedas?*" 'Why don't you stay?' as an intended hint or suggestion and the NNS may assume that the S is soliciting a response as to the reasons why the H cannot stay.

In her study dealing with NS perception of NNS requests, Trosborg (1994:306) found that NSs perceived NNS requests to be less polite than NS's requests. Trosborg suggests the NNS's requests are less prepared, less supported, lacking in "sweeteners" and "disarmers," and contain fewer promises of reward and cost minimizers.

Blum-Kulka (1989) and Blum-Kulka and House (1989) outlined cultural differences affecting conventional indirectness. They distinguished between "conventions of means," or utterances that serve as indirect requests, and "conventions of form," or the exact wording used. In the CCSARP data (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989b), the following data were compiled to compare the relative frequencies of English and Spanish requesting strategies:

Figure 2.2: Relative frequencies of English and Spanish requesting strategies

Strategy employed	*English speakers*	*Spanish speakers*
Conventional indirectness	82%	58%
Directness	10%	40%
Downgraders	53%	17%

Despite these findings, Rintell (1984) found that Spanish speakers believed that they were more deferent in requests than English speakers.

As has been noted, pragmatic differences are not just observed between languages, but also within the same language. This phenomenon, however, can possibly also be attributed to the influence of other languages as in the aforementioned L2 studies. For example, Blum-Kulka (1989) conducted a study on Spanish request strategies with Argentine subjects while Hurley (1992) examined the request strategies of speakers of Ecuadorian Spanish. Although the most common Argentine strategy involved constructions with *"poder"* 'to be able to', the most common Ecuadorian strategy involved imperatives. Hurley found the use of a future imperative in 9.4% of a naturally-occurring speech sample, but Blum-Kulka found no examples of this structure used by her informants. In her study, Hurley concludes that her Ecuadorian data may reflect L1 transfer from Quichua, a local Native American language. Such intralingual studies have ramifications for L2 learners because these learners must be made aware that what is pragmatically appropriate in

one linguistic region may not apply to all regions where a L2 is spoken. Regional differences provide an example for why it is important that the L2 learner be trained to be aware of pragmatic differences and not just be taught specific pragmatic features of the L2.

2.315 Suggestions

Suggestions, like requests, are also classified as an impositive speech act (Trosborg, 1994:188) because they impose on the hearer. They are also potentially face threatening to the hearer. Therefore, such speech acts are often accompanied by mitigation strategies in order to soften the effect that the utterance can have on the listener.

A study on the transfer of suggestion strategies from L1 English to L2 Spanish in listening comprehension was done by Koike (1995). The suggestion speech act was chosen because, as Koike (1994) points out, many Spanish suggestions are realized differently than in English, shown in (1) and (4) below. The English translations of (1) and (3) are provided in (2) and (4), respectively.

(1) *¿No has pensado en leer este libro?*

(2) Haven't you thought about reading this book?

(3) *¿#Has pensado en leer este libro?*

(4) Have you thought about reading this book?

To convey the illocutionary force of a suggestion in Spanish, the suggestion must be expressed negatively, as in (1). The utterance without the negation in (3) conveys a simple yes-no information question. To the English speaker, however, the translated

equivalent of (1), seen in (2), conveys a much stronger force than its Spanish counterpart, which can come across as a reproach to the native English-speaking listener.

This study utilized a set of videotaped stimuli to which 114 Spanish learners of various levels of proficiency were asked to provide written identification of the seven contextualized speech acts heard and to respond to them. The investigator found that many learners assigned the incorrect illocutionary force to the Spanish suggestion forms examined, especially when the forms were not prefaced by suggestion formulaic expressions such as "Why don't you…/" and "How about…?" Regarding the suggestion in (1), only a few learners in each of the three ability groups thought a rebuke was expressed, showing that most of them did not perceive the negative element in this utterance or they did not associate it with the English interpretation. Many learners could respond to the speech act appropriately or say something that would encourage further interaction and more input from the speaker, which presumably would lead them to understand the original intent.

In general, Koike's data suggest that the more advanced learners are more proficient in understanding and identifying the suggestion speech act, but only some of these learners notice the negative element in the interrogative suggestions. Regarding transfer, the data indicate that the transfer strategy is applied by learners at different levels of proficiency, leading to some correct and some incorrect hypotheses about the input. The learners seem to transfer pragmatic knowledge in matching what they can understand of the utterance to the context and other cues such as intonation.

The more advanced learners, who can begin to analyze the input more closely, can sometimes make incorrect hypotheses about those details if they transfer equivalent L1 expressions and their meanings to those of the L2.

The studies outlined above in sections 2.311 through 2.315 provide samples from a relatively large body of research in which L2 speech acts are examined and compared. There are many more studies, including ones that involve other speech acts and other L1's and L2's that have not been mentioned here because of logistical constraints or because they fall outside of the scope of this study.

2.4 ADULT L2 PRAGMATICS ACQUISITION

In this section, the research concerning adult acquisition of L2 pragmatics is outlined and discussed in depth. Research regarding the acquisition of L2 grammar is included only in cases in which it may be relevant to the acquisition of L2 pragmatics as well. First, some controversies regarding the role of the L1 in the acquisition of a L2 are examined because they are pertinent to the acquisition of L2 pragmatics, especially as concerns the role of conscious awareness in the learning of L2 pragmatic features. The concepts of L1 transfer versus restructuring in the L2 are analyzed because they relate to the development of interlanguage pragmatics. Finally, other L2 acquisition research that is considered pertinent to an explanation of the development of L2 pragmatics is discussed.

2.41 The role of L1 in adult L2 acquisition

Researchers such as Dulay and Burt (1978), Ellis (1984), and Krashen (1878, 1982, 1985) examined L2 grammar acquisition based on the assumption that one learns a L2 in much the same way that one learns a L1, a notion that can be abbreviated as L1=L2. While some researchers claimed that L1=L2 in grammar acquisition, other researchers (Bley-Vroman, 1988; Lenneberg, 1967; Schachter 1988, 1990) refuted this claim on the grounds that different approaches are used in L1 and adult L2 language learning. In other words, they contend that L1 does not equal L2 acquisition.[11]

Since the research reviewed in previous sections indicates that pragmatic rules, unlike grammar rules, are overtly taught to children in the L1 acquisition process, the role of the L1 in pragmatics acquisition may be viewed differently. Most research on acquisition of L2 pragmatics also concludes that pragmatics should be overtly taught in order for an L2 learner to develop pragmatic competence (Bouton,

[11] Adherents to this latter school of thought theorize that adult foreign language learning resembles general adult learning more than child language development (Bley-Vroman, 1988:19). Bley-Vroman refers to this as the "Hawthorne effect" (p. 25) in which Chomsky's LAD is replaced by a general abstract problem solving system at the end of the critical period. Lenneberg (1967), who claimed that the critical period for intuitively learning a language ended around the age of puberty, also claimed that once this period was over, languages had to be learned differently. Schachter (1988, 1990) reinforced the claim that L1 does not equal L2 acquisition with her observations that an L2 is not learned as universally or as completely by adults as an L1 is learned by children. She also found that fatigue affects L2 production in ways that it does not affect L1 production. Proponents of L1=L2 theories look at different evidence from the research to support their claims. Chomsky (1965:58) observed that the foreign language learner "does not come to language as an organism initially uninformed as to its general character." In other words, learners come to the L2 with a rich schema about language from their L1 experience. Based on this observation, Krashen (1982) claimed that with comprehensible

1994a, 1994b; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Schmidt, 1983, 1990b, 1993a). Researchers have not indicated the existence of a LAD or of a critical period for the learning of pragmatics. Therefore, while many believe that grammar acquisition is learned intuitively in the L1 via the LAD but needs to be overtly taught in the L2 after the critical period, it appears that pragmatics need to be taught overtly in both circumstances. So, it can be concluded from the research that L1=L2 in pragmatic acquisition.

While there are no major theories that propose that L2 pragmatics develop automatically in the absence of IE, there are researchers who claim that the pragmatic differences between certain languages are so small that drawing the learner's attention to them is not necessary. Fraser and Nolan (1981) claim that a small difference exists between the pragmatics of Spanish and English. There is much research, however, that contradicts Fraser and Nolan's assumption.[12]

Though much research addresses and confirms pragmatic differences within and between languages, many non-linguists believe that a L2 is a direct translation of a L1. Explanations have been offered to address this belief. For example, Wolfson (1984:62) concluded that, since pragmatics in the L1 represent largely unconscious

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input learners should not only be able to learn an L2 as they learned their L1, but in less time than it took to learn their L1.

[12] In fact, some research demonstrates that, even within languages, differences occur that are large enough to adversely affect communication. These pragmatic differences exist between demographic subgroups based on region, SES group, ethnic group, etc. (Thomas, 1983). For example, in their research, Scollon and Scollon (1984) looked at communicative interference as it affected subcultures within a larger cultural context. They examined American whites, blacks, and Alaskan natives, especially in the courtroom context. They found that failure to use the politeness strategies of the dominant group within a L1 community often resulted in stiffer penalties for members of less dominant subgroups.

knowledge, the learner does not realize there are differences in the L2. This belief held by language learners leads to what Wolfson called "communicative interference" (p. 62), or using the L1 pragmatics when operating in the L2 environment, commonly referred to as L1 transfer. If Wolfson is correct, when L1 pragmatic transfer occurs, it is not because the L2 learner assumes the pragmatics of the two languages are the same at a conscious level. Instead, it occurs because the L2 learner makes this assumption on an unconscious level. The belief that pragmatics are universal helps explain research that shows that native speakers are more sensitive to L2 speakers' pragmatic errors than they are to their grammatical errors (e.g. Rintell & Mitchell, 1989:248 cited in Trosberg, 1994:3). Many NSs expect grammar mistakes, but not pragmatic errors, from foreigners.

Another phenomenon concerning the role of the L1 in the development of L2 pragmatics was documented by Blum-Kulka (!989). In her study of Turks living in Germany, Blum-Kulka found that sometimes the Turkish participants employed purposeful linguistic/pragmatic strategies in order not to fit into the host culture. Blum-Kulka proposed that pragmatics are often seen as a way of promoting and retaining cultural distinctiveness. This phenomenon provides another impediment to overcome when teaching and learning pragmatics in the L2 classroom.

There are different theories to explain how L2 pragmatics develop in the language learning process. This field of inquiry, outlined in Chapter One, is called "interlanguage pragmatics." Two different theories of interlanguage pragmatics are examined in the following section.

2.42 L1 transfer in interlanguage

There are two main theories to explain the phenomenon of the development of grammar in interlanguage. Other research outlined in this and the following section suggests that the same theories can also be applied to the development of L2 pragmatics. One theory contends that L2 development in interlanguage is mainly attributable to L1 transfer while a second theory posits the notion that interlanguage reflects mainly a restructuring or creating of a language system that is separate from the learner's L1 and the L2. These competing theories are now explored and applied to the development of L2 pragmatics.

Selinker (1972) and Ellis (1985) examined transfer in interlanguage and concluded that there are different types of interlanguage transfer errors. These include errors that can be attributed to L1 interference, training, strategies of L2 learning, strategies of L2 communication and, in the area of L2 grammar acquisition, the overgeneralization of grammar rules (e.g., using "goed" rather than "went"). Zobl (1982) found that L1 transfer was more common when the two languages involved were more closely related than when they were very distinct from one another. Since both English and Spanish are Western languages that share some common linguistic roots, when applying Zobl's theory to the study of pragmatics, examples of L1 pragmatic transfer in English-speaking NS's production of Spanish are expected to be quite prevalent in the data.

In fact, researchers have discovered that L1 transfer is also a factor in the development of L2 pragmatics. Marcum (1986) studied this phenomenon and concluded that learners transfer L1 pragmatic knowledge to the L2. Other research that examines and supports the use of transfer from the L1 to L2 in pragmatics was conducted by Kasper (1902), Olshtain (1989), Olshtain and Cohen (1983), and Thomas (1983).

Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993:11) conclude that transfer of L1 pragmatics to the L2 can be analyzed in either a negative or a positive light. In the negative analysis this phenomenon is referred to as "fossilization," or a reliance on previously acquired knowledge that results in the inability to change an old habit even when presented with contrary evidence. On the other hand, L1 pragmatic transfer can be positively viewed as the maintenance of cultural identity.

L1 transfer is problematic when what is considered polite in the L1 is considered impolite by speakers of the L2 and vice versa. For example, Tannen (1990) discussed the difference between "high involvement speakers" whose utterances overlap, and "high consideration speakers" who are careful to not overlap their utterances with those of other speakers. A high consideration speaker might find a high involvement speaker's interruptions extremely rude, while the high involvement speaker might conclude that the high consideration speaker is disinterested in what is being said. In addition to this "macro-level" pragmatics example offered by Tannen, there are many "micro-level" examples. For example, in modern American culture children are taught to acknowledge compliments with a

simple “thank you” while in other cultures such an acknowledgement is a sign of conceit (Ragone, 1998). Faerch and Kasper (1986) conclude that the central question in the study of interlanguage pragmatic transfer is that of determining which aspects of L2 development are universal and which are culture or language specific.

2.43 Restructuring/ creating in interlanguage

Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993:3) claimed that L2 speakers develop a pragmatics that is related to yet distinct from either their L1 or L2. Rather than simply transferring L1 rules to the L2, a new system of linguistic rules is created by the L2 learner, called interlanguage pragmatics. Corder (1978) proposed a similar phenomenon in relation to L2 grammatical development.

Comparing the requests of English-speaking learners of Spanish in both the L1 and L2, Koike (1989a) concluded that L2 grammar and pragmatics acquisition are dependent on each other. According to Koike, it is difficult for L2 learners to express their pragmatic knowledge in the L2, or at least difficult for them to access it smoothly, due to restricted L2 grammatical development. She concluded that learners’ grammatical and pragmatic competence develop at different paces. She also noted that L2 learners are more interested in conveying the meaning of an utterance than achieving accuracy in form. This phenomenon leads L2 learners to exhibit a higher level of directness in requests than they know is acceptable in their L1, and they do not pay attention to the effect in the L2. In other words, since the

propositions of their speech acts are more important to them than pragmatic considerations, L2 learners may make pragmatic violations in the L2 that they would not make in their L1, thus violating both L1 and L2 pragmatic rules. In doing this, they use simplification strategies. This finding suggests evidence of a separate pragmatic interlanguage for the L2.[13]

In addition to simplification strategies, it appears that "complicating strategies" may also be used by L2 learners. Kasper (1997) shows that learners' mean length of utterance (MLU) often increases in their interlanguage. Moreover, she noted that NNSs have a tendency to use more transparent, complex, explicit, and longer utterances than NSs. The NNS's utterances also tend to be more literal than those of the NSs. She claims that, since the NNSs have fewer lexicalized formula to rely on in the L2, they must use more energy than the NSs, resulting in utterances that are more blunt and more waffling because they feel a need to explain themselves, which requires more words.[14] Edmondson and House (cited in Kasper 1997:359), however, conclude that such verbosity is seen more in NNS's written responses than in role-play situations. Since this present study elicits both written and role-play data, their hypotheses are examined in light of our findings in subsequent chapters.

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[13] Corder (1978) also showed evidence of similar simplification strategies in the grammar of interlanguage. Other researchers have shown support for his claim. For example, in studies with English-speaking learners' acquisition of the Spanish copula *ser* and *estar* (Guntermann, 1992; Witten, 2000a), some beginning learners passed through a phase where the copula were omitted although the resultant utterances are ungrammatical in English.

[14] Witten (2000a) also found examples of students using more difficult constructions when they were unsure, particularly at the intermediate stage of acquisition. Though her *ser/estar* study involved the

It has been noted by Sharwood Smith and Kellerman (1989) that there appears to be a "U" shaped curve in L2 acquisition, and that learners' mistakes can actually appear and increase as knowledge is being processed during the L2 learning process. Other research supports the claim that learners sometimes make the most inconsistent judgments at the intermediate level rather than at the beginning level (Sorace, 1988:187). It is suggested that this phenomenon is the result of more rote learning at the beginning level, with more analysis occurring at higher levels. Errors at higher levels of L2 development are, thus, the result of incorrect conclusions being drawn by the learner. There is further evidence for the "U" shaped acquisition phenomenon in research on L2 pragmatics. For example, in the aforementioned study on English speakers' comprehension of negation in Spanish suggestions and requests by Koike (1994), some learners at the intermediate level misinterpreted an element of negation that beginners failed to notice (and, hence, interpreted correctly) and some learners at the advanced level appeared to understand. This negative element connotes a suggestion in Spanish (e.g., "*¿No has pensado en leer x?*" 'Haven't you thought of reading x?' as a suggestion to a struggling student), but is commonly interpreted as a rebuke in English. In Koike's study, the intermediate learners were more likely to interpret such a suggestion as a rebuke perhaps because they were beginning to analyze utterances more closely than beginning learners, but drew incorrect conclusions because they did not have the pragmatic knowledge of more advanced learners.

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acquisition of a grammatical rather than a pragmatic feature of the L2, it was further evidence of complication at a certain stage of L2 development.

While some may view the two main theories of interlanguage development as contradictory, Corder (1978) claimed that they can work together. He claimed that one might be able to find examples of both transfer and restructuring strategies in a L2 speaker's interlanguage.

2.44 Other L2 acquisition theories

Many researchers have analyzed L2 development outside the framework of interlanguage theory. On closer examination, however, most of their analyses still imply that a L2 is acquired either through L1 transfer or through restructuring strategies. These analyses initially concerned L2 grammar acquisition, but are mentioned here because similar phenomena were either noted later in L2 pragmatics development or may be noted in this or future studies concerning L2 pragmatics. For example, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Stockwell, Bowen, & Martin, 1965) for L2 development was based on the structuralist theory that emphasized the concept of problems that arose as a result of the differences between two languages, which was called "L1 interference." As other theories became more acceptable, schools of thought such as contrastive analysis, which were based on the concept of transfer, were criticized. The concept of transfer was later revived and reexamined with some modifications being suggested, however (Gass & Selinker, 1983: Kellerman & Sharwood Smith, 1986; Sabino, 1994; Schachter & Rutherford, 1979). In connection with this L1 transfer "revival," researchers began to examine what they called "contrastive pragmatics" (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989a; Schachter & Rutherford, 1979). Contrastive pragmatics concerns the development of L2

pragmatics in terms of a learner's particular L1 and the exploration of how a concept is realized in different languages.

Other L2 acquisition concepts that may also apply to the acquisition of L2 pragmatics include Univeral Grammar theory (Chomsky, 1965) and markedness theory (Gass & Varonis, 1994; Rutherford, 1982, 1984; White, 1988).[15] These concepts may apply to the acquisition of L2 pragmatics because some concepts may be more transparent than others. The more transparent, less marked, pragmatic concepts may be easier for the L2 learner to acquire.

Researchers including Bickerton (1975), Schumann (1978), and Byrne (1994) have studied pidgin and creole languages, which develop in naturalistic L2 learning contexts. This naturalistic L2 development employs such strategies as transfer and restructuring (especially simplification) on the part of the L2 learner. Olshtain and Blum-Kulka's findings (1985) regarding the development of L2 pragmatics in the absence of formal instruction and Koike's findings (1989a) regarding simplification

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[15] Chomsky (1965) theorized that humans learn their L1 partly within the framework of Universal Grammar (UG). UG theory submits that there are aspects of human language that are common to all languages and that are intuitively understood and acquired by humans through the LAD. It is further posited that there are "parameters" of specific languages that trigger differing rule systems of UG. For example, childhood acquisition of languages such as Spanish trigger the "pro-drop parameter" in which subject pronouns are not normally necessary whereas early exposure to English triggers the non pro-drop parameter (Liceras, 1988; Luján, 1985). Within these two distinct parameters, different sets of rules are triggered and set intuitively by the L1 learner's LAD. Within the framework of this theory, it may be concluded that the degree to which transfer or restructuring strategies are employed by an L2 learner is dependent on to what degree the parameters of the learner's L1 and L2 are similar or different.

Within the framework of UG theory, there is another phenomenon that influences L2 acquisition, because some of the characteristics of any specific language are outside of the parameters set by the rules of UG. These features are sometimes referred to as "marked" features (Rutherford, 1982, 1984; White, 1988). The theory that analyzes languages in terms of UG/default features, referred to as "unmarked" features and marked features respectively, is commonly referred to as "markedness theory." UG and markedness theories suggest that unmarked forms of an L1 may be more readily transferred to the L2 by the learner while marked features require restructuring in the L2 learning process. Gass & Varonis (1994) have hypothesized that if a scale could be made from A through E with A representing the least marked features of a language and E representing the most marked features, if learners were taught a "D" item, they would be able to intuit items A through C.

strategies employed spontaneously in the pragmatics of L2 learners suggest that L2 learners may also develop pragmatics strategies in their interlanguage that are not the result of formal instruction.

Not all L2 acquisition concepts can be analyzed within the framework of transfer and restructuring in interlanguage. These concepts may also prove to have ramifications for the development of L2 pragmatics. For example, Cummins (1979, cited in Trosborg, 1994:305) examined L2 acquisition in terms of what he labeled "BICS" (Basic Interpersonal Communications Skills) and "CALP" (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency). He claimed that discrepancies can exist between the two, because many learners are proficient in one of these areas but not in the other, depending on the environment(s) in which L2 learning took place. This language learning phenomenon falls outside of the transfer/restructuring dichotomy, but has an influence on L2 production and how utterances are perceived by NS and NNS hearers. The BICS/CALP distinction can affect the perception of appropriateness of an utterance relative to a given environment and, thus, is relevant to the study of pragmatics. For example, a NS may expect a person with a high degree of development in CALP to also be well educated enough to know how to avoid pragmatic errors. This person may be the type of speaker, however, who has the least experience with NSs and, thus, a low degree of pragmatic competence.

Another concept that lies outside of the framework of transfer and restructuring in the empirical study of L2 acquisition is Larsen-Freeman's "frequency hypothesis" (1976a, 1976b, 1991). This hypothesis states that learners remember best that which they hear most. This hypothesis may have future applications in the area of pragmatics because L2 learners may acquire those features of the L2 pragmatics to which they are exposed more frequently at a more rapid pace.

2.5 INPUT ENHANCEMENT AND L2 ACQUISITION

The concept of IE has been reexamined in recent decades. This concept predates the popularity of Krashen's Monitor Model and other communicative L2 instruction methodologies in which it was de-emphasized and discouraged. IE was integral to the grammar/translation and other non-communicative L2 instructional methodologies in which the instructor routinely provided in-depth explanations of the formal properties of the L2 in the L1 of the learners. Now that the concept of IE is being revisited, however, it is also being incorporated into communicative methodologies. In some respects this practice suggests a synergy of old and new theories and instructional methodologies, but with a modern "twist." Recently, more emphasis is placed on communicative activities in the classroom that incorporate lessons on the formal properties of the L2 read for homework and brief explanations of the formal properties of the L2 in the L2. In this and the next section, some of the recent studies on the subject of IE and their application in the modern L2 communicative classroom are discussed.

One belief of those who claim that L1 and L2 grammar acquisition are not the same is that IE is necessary for an adult learner to develop L2 grammatical competence. Conversely, those who claim that L1 and L2 pragmatics are learned in the same way would conclude that IE is necessary in L2 instruction in order for the L2 learner to develop pragmatic competence. Most current SLA research supports claims that some form of IE is necessary for the post childhood L2 learner to develop both grammatical and pragmatic competence. Discussion on the form of IE and extent to which it is necessary for L2 acquisition to occur, however, has only recently

emerged as a topic of debate in L2 research. This intends to make a contribution to the debate on this current issue.

Schmidt (1990a, 1990b, 1993a, 1993b) examined IE in pragmatics acquisition and claimed that "noticing" was crucially related to the question of what linguistic material is stored in memory. Researchers including Schmidt often refer to information that the learner notices as "intake." Schmidt also outlined the related concept of "salience" (1993a:29), which is the phenomenon that occurs when a person explicitly learns something new and then soon hears it used in the "real world." The fact that the new information is noticed so soon after explicit instruction indicates that, prior to instruction, the same item was probably heard, but went unnoticed.

Tomlin and Villa (1994) examined the concept of "attention" as it affected the L2 learner and the learning process. They concluded that attention is a multifaceted concept that incorporates four separate, yet interrelated features, which are awareness, alertness, orientation, and detection. They claimed that (a) instruction affects awareness because it draws the learners' attention to specific features, (b) motivation affects alertness because it influences the degree of attention to instruction, and (c) the focus of the learners' attention affects orientation. Detection is then affected by these three elements and determines what is ultimately acquired by the L2 learner. The current investigation examines the learners' attitude and motivation as well as IE in light of Tomlin and Villa's claims.

Gass and Varonis (1994) also concluded that language learning is complex and consists of interrelated elements. They distinguish between different levels of information processing by the L2 learner. They developed a hierarchy in which the following components are ranked in terms of what information is ultimately acquired

by the learner. From lowest to highest, the learner's information processing levels are labeled "apperceived input," "comprehended input," "intake," and "integration." IE techniques serve to "move" input up the hierarchy in order to increase the probability that the information the instructor wishes to convey is not simply noticed by the learner, but is integrated into the learners' knowledge base.

Kasper and Kellerman (1997) concluded that comprehensible input is necessary but not sufficient for L2 acquisition. They base their conclusions on Swain (1985) who outlined the need for pushed output, and Bialystock (1994) who indicated the need for process control in order to turn unanalyzed information into analyzed knowledge.

Despite claims that IE is important for the development of pragmatic competence, published empirical studies that attempt to specifically measure the influence of IE in the development of specific pragmatic features are rare. At this time, most studies that attempt to show a correlation between IE and SLA concern grammatical accuracy. An example of such empirical research concerning Spanish is a pilot study that included eight Spanish L2 learners and their production of article use, gender agreement, subject pronoun use, and verbal morphology by Salaberry and López-Ortega (1998). They concluded that attention to form was a major predictor of accuracy because learners who attended to form outperformed those whose attention was not drawn to these formal properties of the L2.

Regarding L2 learning in the absence of IE, Schmidt (1993a:35) noted Reber's statement that "Looking for rules will work if you can find them, but not if you can't." Schmidt adds that learning from unattended processing is insignificant when compared to the results of attended processing. According to Schmidt, "attended processing" is not general attention to comprehensible input, but rather

attention to the specific forms to be learned. Schmidt explains that, in order to learn L2 pragmatics, attention not only to linguistic forms but also to functional meaning and relevant contextual features is required. Schmidt (1993a) finally concludes that explicit and implicit learning have a synergistic relationship. Such a relationship implies that both the IE and naturalistic approaches outlined in earlier sections of the present study are needed to teach pragmatics. Schmidt's conclusion implies that these different instructional approaches, which are often viewed as competitive, may work together in the SLA process because IE strategies foster explicit learning while naturalistic learning fosters implicit learning.

VanPatten (1992a, 1992b) also analyzed the role of L2 input and the language acquisition process. He claimed that, for acquisition to occur, input must become "intake." He defined intake as the information that is noticed and comprehended. Intake is incorporated into the "developing system," defined as the "place" where the newly acquired linguistic information of the learners is processed through an accommodation of the intake. He claims that information incorporated through the developing system is manifested in the learners' output. This claim leads to the conclusion that altering the L2 input processing should have an influence on changing the L2 learners' internalized knowledge. VanPatten posits that traditional instruction involves manipulation of the output, while "processing instruction" focuses on the input that the learners receive. Focusing on the input involves IE. Hence, his model also suggests the need for IE strategies in L2 instruction. VanPatten's "processing instruction" could be applied to teaching pragmatics if the learners are encouraged to notice certain pragmatic features in the input as a means of influencing their output.

A major proponent of the need for IE on the part of the instructor and CR on the part of the learner to facilitate the learning of L2 pragmatics is Schmidt (1983a,

1990a, 1990b, 1992, 1993a, 1993b). Other researchers, such as Bouton (1994a, 1994b), also discussed the need for IE in the acquisition of pragmatics. Bouton claimed that conversational implicature is learned slowly when it is not deliberately taught. With this claim that formal instruction accelerates acquisition, Bouton's research reinforces Olshtain and Blum-Kulka's findings (1985) that IE accelerates L2 acquisition.

Holmes (1984) addresses one of the major problems encountered in teaching pragmatics in the classroom. She notes that even small groups within a society have their own pragmatic rules. House (1989) determined that, even within apparently homogeneous subgroups, there are gender differences involved in pragmatic expression. Therefore, it is logical to conclude that, although IE is valuable and accelerates the development of pragmatic competence, it is not possible to equip the learners for <u>everything</u> they will encounter in the L2 environment. Thus, it follows that awareness that pragmatic differences occur across cultures and subcultures needs to be instilled in the learners, so that they will notice and be open to the different pragmatic norms of any subculture in which they might interact. As a cautionary note, Robinson (1997a, 1997b) and Schmidt (1993a, 1993b, 1995) determined that pragmatic awareness is necessary but not sufficient for pragmatic competence. Therefore, in accordance with current research, IE in L2 pragmatics needs to foster in the learner both a general awareness that pragmatic rules are culturally (as well as "subculturally") specific and, at the same time, to focus the learners' attention on specific pragmatic elements of the L2.

In conclusion, the research indicates that IE is important for the development of pragmatics in the L2 just as it is in the L1. Although L2 pragmatics could be learned implicitly through naturalistic exposure, this process generally takes an

extremely long time. IE serves to enhance and quicken the acquisition process. For IE to be effective, it must become intake for the learners. In other words, IE would ideally lead to CR on the part of the learner. A caveat to the teaching of pragmatics is that there are too many features to be addressed specifically in the L2 classroom; therefore, we recommend that IE foster a general awareness and openness to pragmatic differences on the part of the L2 learner along with the teaching of specific pragmatic features.

2.6 INPUT ENHANCEMENT AND L2 INSTRUCTION

A difference between L2 methodologies such as Krashen and Terrell's (1983) Natural Approach and those that incorporate IE is an emphasis on a different type of information processing. Methodologies such as the Natural Approach rely more on inductive reasoning, which presents the whole (the language) and expects the learner to extrapolate the parts (the rules and specific elements) independently. This process is also referred to as "bottom-up processing" or "discovery learning." On the other hand, methodologies that incorporate IE strategies place a greater emphasis on presenting the parts (the rules and specifics) to the learner while expecting the whole (the language) to be more independently deduced and assimilated from these specifics. This approach is referred to as deductive or "top-down processing." The two processes are not mutually exclusive, however, because research shows that "good" readers and listeners employ both types of processing (Hadley, 1993:136).

Sharwood-Smith (1988:52) discusses the dichotomy between explicit (deductive) and implicit (inductive) L2 learning. He states that explicit learning provides a short cut to the time-consuming acquisition of implicit knowledge.

Research in the field of pragmatics (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985) concurs with this statement. Sharwood-Smith claims that there is a continuum available to the L2 instructor in terms of how much elaboration and how much explicitness a point requires in order to be acquired by the learner. Sharwood-Smith defines elaboration as spending more time and giving more examples of a specific point without explicit explanation while explicitness refers to overt explanation, shown in the following:

Figure 2.3: Elaboration and explicitness in L2 instruction

A	B
C	D

explicitness

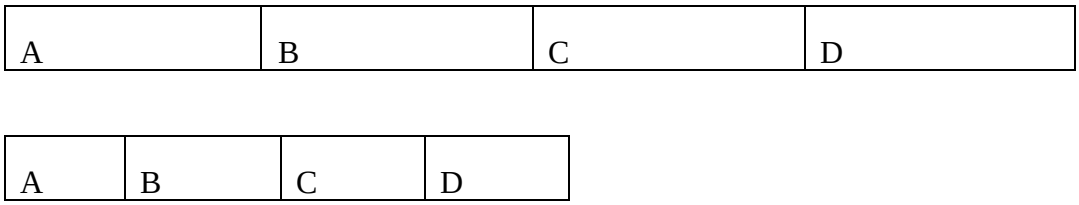
Source: Sharwood-Smith, 1988:53

In Figure 2.3 the horizontal axis represents increasing levels of explicitness in instruction while the vertical axis represents increasing levels of elaboration in instruction. For example, the 'B' box represents very elaborate and explicit instruction while the 'C' box represents instruction that is neither very elaborate nor very explicit. Here, 'C' represents providing the learner with brief, indirect clues. The most traditional and familiar form of instruction is represented by box 'D.' Box 'A' represents teaching that is elaborate but covert; for example, providing the learner with mnemonics or symbols to remember a certain point. Interestingly, at the end of this explanation, Sharwood-Smith concludes that "whatever the underlying processes of L2 learning, it is quite clear and uncontroversial to say that most spontaneous performance is attained by dint of practice" (p. 57). In other words, the key to L2 acquisition may be time on task regardless of the methodology used. This observation is commonly echoed by practitioners in the L2 field but generally ignored

in empirical research. In this current research project time on task is considered as a possible intervening variable that can influence the pragmatic acquisition of test and control groups.

In his research, Pienneman (1984, 1986, 1888, 1989) found that formal instruction, when provided at the appropriate time**,** served to speed up natural L2 acquisition. The appropriate time is defined as when the L2 learner has mastered the concepts necessary before proceeding to the next level. When applied to pragmatics, the appropriate time might include when the learner has the grammatical ability to understand or formulate an utterance and when the learner has an understanding of the concept of pragmatic differences. Considering each box as a level of L2 acquisition, Pienneman's theory can be graphically depicted as follows:

Figure 2.4: A graphic depiction of Pienneman's (1984) theory of the impact of formal L2 instruction



In Figure 2.4, the top row of boxes represents naturalistic learning while the second row represents the effects of IE on L2 instruction. The diagram indicates that, with formal instruction, the learners' interlanguage must pass through the same

stages, but each stage is shortened. The concept outlined in Figure 2.4 was drawn from earlier research by Meisel (1983) that outlined the "complexification theory." This theory stated that learners must go through stages in L2 acquisition in which they acquire the features of the L2 in order of their grammatical complexity. Trosborg (1994:428) has proposed that this same complexification theory applies to the acquisition of pragmatics as well as to the acquisition of grammar. In the present study it is also argued that IE shortens the time needed to acquire an appropriate L2 pragmatics.

While Pienneman hypothesized that learning is accelerated because of the CR that occurs with formal instruction, Pica (1987) concluded that, as a result of this CR, classroom learners acquire more grammar and perform more accurately than non-classroom learners. In their research, Salaberry and López-Ortega (1998) concluded that attention to form benefits all learners, but affects beginning more than advanced L2 learners. These findings imply that the benefits from the use of IE in L2 instruction are multi-faceted and complex.

VanPatten (1990) noted that if learners must consciously attend to linguistic features in the input, then it is logical that instruction can increase focus and also intake on the part of the learner. Examining the same issue with a focus on pragmatics, Schmidt (1990a, 1990b) agreed that intake is increased when learners are instructed to focus on a specific element. VanPatten (1992a; 1992b) further claimed that "processing instruction," which focuses on input rather than output, leads learners to make more correct form-meaning connections when listening, which in turn positively affects the learners' developing systems.

There is not a great deal of literature that specifically focuses on the topic of pragmatics and IE as they are applied to instruction in the L2 classroom. There are

claims from such researchers as Schmidt (1990a, 1990b, 1993a, 1993b) that it is important to use IE strategies help learners acquire a L2 pragmatic competence but, as stated earlier, there has been little discussion on how best to accomplish this goal. Kasper and Schmidt (1996:156) concluded that the goal of L2 pragmatic instruction should be for instructors and learners to expect to achieve an "optimal" level of acquisition and not "total convergence" with the target language community. They explain that this lower expectation derives from the assumption that NNSs may intentionally opt for pragmatic distinctiveness as a strategy of identity assertion because pragmatics are related to culture, and cultural identity can be very strong and resistant to modification. They further claim that "the maintenance of separate L1 and L2 pragmatic systems would approximate multiple personality disorder" (p. 159) because a speaker would literally have to assume another personality to function as an NS in the L2. Anecdotal personal communication with bilinguals indicates that some feel as if they have one personality when communicating with NSs of one language and another personality when interacting with NSs of another. This feeling lends some support to Kasper and Schmidt's contentions.

García and Spinelli's (1995) textbook, *Mejor Dicho*, overtly addresses teaching for pragmatic competence in the Spanish L2 classroom. Though an encouraging early attempt in the field, the book has been criticized by practitioners for containing extensive lists of terms and phrases that could be cumbersome to the L2 learner. This criticism may be difficult to overcome because, as Pawley and Syder (1984) noted, there are literally hundreds of thousands of lexicalized sentence stems and idioms that native speakers use and that an L2 learner needs to know in order to achieve pragmatic competence in the L2. Becker (1990) claims that pragmatic rules are not really rules, because one must judge each particular context to make

pragmatic choices. In conclusion, it would appear from the research that teaching pragmatics in the L2 classroom may prove to be a daunting task. This observation also supports our hypothesis that it may be practical to teach L2 learners to be aware of and receptive to L2 pragmatic differences in addition to teaching specific pragmatic knowledge.

2.61 Input enhancement and its effects on global comprehension

There is another consideration to be noted when formulating ways to incorporate IE strategies into the instruction of L2 pragmatics. VanPatten (1990) conducted research that showed that L2 learners, especially at the early stages, have difficulty focusing on both grammatical form and content. This finding is a concern for this project, because our test group participants were asked to focus on pragmatic form while viewing a videotaped soap opera. VanPatten concludes, however, that the major problems occur when learners are asked to focus on morphological features not related to the meaning of an utterance, such as agreement. He concludes that when learners are asked to look for lexical items, focus on form does not seem to have a deleterious effect on overall comprehension. Since mainly lexical-level pragmatic features are solicited in the IE instruments for this project, it is hoped that the learners' global comprehension is not adversely affected. Another consideration that merits mention in regard to this issue, however, is that with pragmatic features it is impossible to separate form from meaning. For example, whether a speaker uses the future tense (e.g., "Will you please…?") or the conditional mood (e.g., "Would you please…?") is a matter of both form and meaning. The difference between these two

selections is both lexical and morphological in nature, but the morphology does affect the meaning of the utterance.

Other research concerning IE and global comprehension was conducted by Volpe (1993), who found that learners could attend to form while attending to content during active video viewing. Her findings along with those of VanPatten (1990) indicate that the methodology used for the present study should not negatively influence the learners' global comprehension of the video series. Although there is evidence that focus on form at times harms global comprehension and at times it does not, there is no evidence in the literature that shows that focus on form increases the global comprehension of the L2 learner.

With the above considerations in mind, some of the questions on our research feedback instruments were devised to address this issue of the effect of IE on global comprehension. Responses to these items will be used to answer the third research question proposed by this study, which examines how form-focused IE affects learners' global comprehension. The results of this line of inquiry are presented in Chapter Four.

2.7 VIDEO AND THE L2 CLASSROOM

Since video was chosen as the medium by which to teach pragmatics for the current study, the research concerning the use of video in the L2 classroom is reviewed in this section. Berwald (1985) claimed that it was difficult to find any significant, definitive study attesting to the value of video in L2 learning. Several researchers, however, have disagreed with these findings and concluded that video does provide a rich context for the teaching of various facets of a L2, both cultural

and linguistic. In fact, Alalou (1999) concluded that although educators have had access to video for quite some time, it is still underutilized in the L2 classroom as a source of linguistic and cultural information.

To determine if video is a vehicle for the transfer of cultural knowledge to beginning learners of French, Herron, Dubreil, Cole, and Corrie (2000) conducted research in which they concluded that, after watching a video program for eight weeks, learners performed significantly better on posttests than on pretests on items related to cultural knowledge. The authors of this study considered both big "C" and little "c" cultural knowledge. The Big "C" involved erudite facets of culture such as art and literature while the little "c" reflected the daily routines of the French people. The 50 participants in the study reported that the videos contained more examples of little "c" than of big "C" culture and that they learned more little "c" culture from the *French in Action* video series employed for the study. The authors concluded that the learners' perceptions were correct and that the participants indeed scored significantly higher in the area of little "c" culture. The authors concluded that video was an effective technological tool for presenting Big "C" and especially little "c" culture in the foreign language classroom. Since pragmatics and culture are closely linked, such findings can be considered positive to those who wish to use video to convey pragmatic information about the L2 to language learners.

It has been noted elsewhere that L2 learners receive cultural information through video that facilitates their understanding of the different background knowledge of people of different cultures (Hadley, 1993; Vogely, 1998). The background information that one brings to the interpretation of information, also called "schema," influences thinking, attitudes, and actions. An example of the different schema possessed by people of different cultures can be seen in the concept

behind something as simple as the word "window." The word evokes a different picture in the minds of different hearers of the term because windows are constructed differently in different parts of the world and sometimes simply constitute a hole in the wall. Video provides such cultural information to L2 learners who have not traveled to the area where the L2 is spoken. Several studies have shown that university students who take foreign languages as a requirement exhibit a more positive attitude if the cultural component of the language is sufficiently emphasized because these learners are generally interested in learning about the cultures and peoples who speak the L2 (Hadley, 1993).

The teaching of L2 culture through video is relevant to the study of pragmatics, because, as Singerman (1996) concludes, language is embedded in culture. In fact, it has been said that "Language cannot be taught without cultural content" (Lange, 1999:57). Therefore, it is important that the NNS develop some shared cultural schema with the L2 speakers, precisely because pragmatics are often a linguistic manifestation of deeply held cultural attitudes and beliefs. A simple example was the concept of "window" provided above. A more complex example of how cultural schema can affect pragmatics is that in some cultures it is appropriate to use passive constructions, such as "*Se me perdieron las llaves*" 'My keys were lost.' In other cultures, however, a direct translation of such an utterance is awkward, and it is more appropriate to use the active voice with an utterance such as "I lost the keys." Hence, an understanding of the cultural preference for the selection of active or passive voice in such situations could assist the development of pragmatic competence.

Video provides the learner with audio as well as visual input. The audio input, which can feature native speaker interaction, can develop learners' listening

comprehension. Research shows that when learners' listening abilities are well developed, their sense of confidence with the L2 is increased (Long, 1983). This confidence can create a more positive attitude, which can in turn enhance language learning (Gardner, 1979, 1980; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Horwitz, 1988; Horwitz & Young, 1991). In the following section, the influence of positive affect in L2 learning is further explored.

Mauerhofer (1966) documented psychological change experienced by moviegoers. He noted how the audio/visual experience can allow the viewer to escape reality and to identify with the characters. This experience can allow a sense of surrender and total involvement on the part of the viewer (Volpe, 1993). Bransford, Sherwood, and Hasselbring (1988) observed that film provides a common experience to all in a group who view the same video. Thus, in the L2 classroom, learners on an individual or group basis can be psychologically drawn to an L2-speaking character. Such empathy with an L2 speaker might facilitate pragmatic acquisition indirectly. Video may not only contextualize language, but also personalize it for the L2 learner.

Further justification for using video to teach L2 pragmatics is evidence that the impact of visual images on the learner cannot be underestimated. In fact, neuroscientists (Fiske & Taylor, 1984; Nisbett & Ross, 1980) have found that, even when visual input is not the focus of an activity, it still exerts the most powerful influences on the learner's behavior. Martínez-Gibson (1998) posits that visual images are even more powerful for today's learners given that they have lived all of their lives in the television era and have been greatly influenced by its visual orientation.

Bransford and Johnson (1972) examined the importance of visual input and advance organizers in the learning process. They concluded that both techniques enhance comprehension, especially for learners at lower levels. Video provides learners with visual input and interactive video viewing through IE activities provides an advance organizer to language learners. Since the participants in the current study are at a lower level of L2 acquisition, positive results should be obtained with our form of intervention in the learning process based on Bransford and Johnson's research.

Kellerman (1990) claims that vision is an integral part of listening. He contends that video images can compensate for aural gaps in comprehension and that a lack of visual input can even make some sounds more difficult to perceive. Visual images can provide context and advance organizers, and allow some viewers to lip read, which augments listening comprehension, thus increasing overall comprehension. Lonergan (1984) adds that watching a person talk communicates more information to the recipient than simply listening or reading, which can explain why L2 learners claim that it is more difficult to comprehend the L2 when it is heard on the telephone or on the radio than when it is heard in the context of video or in-person communication.

There are also studies that do not indicate that video exerts a positive influence on the L2 learning process. For example, while a study involving children, television, and L1 development (Rice, 1983) found that environmental input affects vocabulary acquisition, which in turn affects grammar acquisition, a similar study concluded that such benefits may not extend to the L2 learner. Secules, Herron, and Tomasello (1992) studied the benefits of the *French in Action* video series on beginning level L2 French learners and found that the video did not significantly

improve the learners' ability in the areas of reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary, or idiomatic expression, but that it did lead to a significant increase in listening comprehension skills. In other words, Secules, their investigation found that video viewing had a positive influence on the development of strategic competence, but not on grammatical or pragmatic competence.

Another consideration when using video in the L2 classroom is whether it is more advantageous to use authentic video or video developed for pedagogical purposes. There is research to support either choice. For example, Cummins (1989) claimed that videos that are tied to the textbook may well be the most beneficial to lower-level learners, a claim that also serves as an endorsement for non-authentic, pedagogical video. Vande Berg (1993) submitted that non-authentic video uses language that is too simplistic and does not sufficiently "stretch" or challenge the learner, however. To make an analogy with Krashen's (1978) Monitor Model, it appears that, according to Vande Berg's claim, non-authentic video provides language at the "*i*level" rather that at the "*i+1* level." This debate over authentic versus non-authentic video usage in the classroom remains a matter of controversy and is, therefore, a consideration when choosing the video used for any study. The present study attempts to avoid this controversy because, although it employs non-authentic video developed for pedagogical purposes, its IE techniques could be adapted to use with authentic video.

A further consideration when using video in the L2 classroom is the length of each viewing. Again, there is support in the research for different choices. Most of the literature indicates that the most effective use of video is to show segments from 2 to 10 minutes in length in the L2 classroom (Garza, 1996; Lavery, 1984). Garza (1996:5) also contends that repeated viewing is essential for successful use of

instructional video.[16] Repeated viewing also increases the necessity for short segments. In other research, however, Mount, Mount, and Toplin (1988) found that it was beneficial to show full-length video in the classroom if the activity was based on structured goals. Also, in his manual for practitioners, Lavery (1984) includes some activities for 90 minute, full-length feature films.[17]

The research on video use in the L2 classroom indicates the important role the instructor can have on the learning process. For example, Garza (1996:13) claims that the role of the instructor as viewing moderator is crucial to the success of all existing programs and must not be subordinated to the video medium itself. Furthermore, Berwald (1985:13) concluded that the interest and the enthusiasm of the teacher is an important factor in the success of using video in the L2 classroom. Although the author of the current study agrees with these findings, unfortunately, it was not feasible to follow these suggested conditions in this investigation because of the desire to minimize the variable of the effect of instructor input. In support of the design that was necessary given the goals of this study, research by Altman (1989) suggests that out-of-class viewing activities can assure a carefully targeted use of a video program when students must view a sequence and then perform written activities.

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[16] One way to address this situation is to utilize the methodology employed by Kasper (1992) in which subjects viewed 20 short video vignettes once for content and then a second time for form. During the second viewing, learners were asked to note ungrammatical as well as pragmatically inappropriate (infelicitous) utterances. Kasper's method was attempted in the pilot study for this current project, but was soon abandoned due to noncompliance on the part of the participants, who were viewing video independently outside of the classroom. Kasper's methodology seems more practical, therefore, in instances in which short segments of video are being shown by the instructor in the classroom.

[17] As with many such manuals, Lavery's activities tend to be more centered around the plot than focused on formal properties of the language.

There is evidence from the research that video may provide a quick and inexpensive substitute for the time-consuming and expensive real-life experience provided by travel to and study in a L2 environment. As mentioned in the previous chapter, one of the main models for this study comes from Altman's (1989) research concerning the use of video as a virtual reality in the L2 classroom. His research demonstrates that video could prove to be a virtual reality when used in conjunction with L2 instruction because the learners in his study who viewed a TPR lesson on video performed as well on L2 vocabulary tests as those who had participated in the lesson. Altman's findings are important for this current study because our ultimate goal is to develop the learners' ability to analyze future "real life" L2 encounters using the same techniques that they used while watching L2 speakers interact in the virtual reality of the video used for their language class.

The literature regarding the use of video in the L2 classroom also indicates that the way in which the video is incorporated into the syllabus is quite important. For example, Altman (1989) asserts that it is important that video be integrated into the class curriculum and not just used as enrichment in order for it to be successful. He notes that there are two ways in which video can be incorporated into the L2 syllabus, labeled "enrichment" and "integration" (p. 24). Altman found that when the video component is used as enrichment, the learners view the component as a dispensable "add-on." Because of this attitude, they do not learn as much from the video component of the course. Conversely, when the video is incorporated as an integral part of the curriculum, Altman found that the learners view it as a fundamental part of the class structure and take it more seriously. As a result, they learn more from the activity. For the current study, the researcher asked participants who had viewed the *Destinos* video in high school about their past experiences with

this component of the course to determine if these learners should be removed from the study. In light of Altman's findings, it is interesting to note that every participant who was asked commented that the video had been used for enrichment purposes in their high school program, that they had not paid much attention to it, and that they did not believe that this prior exposure had been helpful to them during the current college semester. Based on their claims and the research, such participants were not removed from the study.

Researchers examining the use of video in L2 learning have also noted the effects of utilizing video in relation to the other components of a language course. Gillespie (1985) discussed the pros and cons of the use of video materials as either "integrated" or "supplemental." By integrated, she denotes that the video was designed to accompany the other classroom materials, such as the textbook. Her use of the term "supplemental" refers to materials that are developed separately from the other materials used in the course. For the present study, the video program used was supplemental to the course. A third type of video program, discussed by Berwald (1985), is designed for self-teaching/independent learning. Berwald contends that most of these programs have been unsuccessful. The *Destinos* video program used for this study was originally designed to be such a program for public television (PBS); however, it has subsequently been incorporated into many Spanish L2 curricula.[18]

Berwald (1985) also made observations concerning the format of various L2 videos. One such observation is relevant to the current study. He submitted that the

[18] The *Destinos* video series may be used alone or in conjunction with a series of textbooks and workbooks that have been developed to accompany the video. Therefore, *Destinos* can be used independently or, according to Gillespie's definitions, as either a supplemental or as an integrated course component.

soap opera format used in some videos, such as the one employed for this study, is beneficial for L2 learners because it provides a window into the interpersonal relationships between members of another culture and the L2 pragmatics. Berwald's findings indicate that our results may have been different had a different video format been employed.

In order for learners to be able to use any video as a means to learn L2 pragmatics, the video must be comprehended. Altman (1989:42) states that the "Golden rule of video" for the instructor is "Don't expect or even seek full comprehension." He claims that learners' comprehension tends to be based more on global meaning than on the comprehension of specific words. These observations support the need for IE activities to accompany video viewing in order to focus the learners' attention on any specific or general point that the instructor wishes the learners to comprehend.

Finally, the literature regarding the creation of L2 videos specifically to teach pragmatics was reviewed. As mentioned, Schmidt (1993a, 1993b) explains that to learn L2 pragmatics, attention not only to linguistic forms but also to functional meaning and relevant contextual features is required, which can explain why appropriate pragmatic forms are not as readily teachable through textbooks as are grammatical forms. Such observations most likely influenced the creation of some videos specifically to teach L2 pragmatic competence. For example, there are videos to teach L2 pragmatics for specific professional purposes. Mainous, Blomeyer, and Gillespie (1985) mentioned a program entitled "Spanish for Agricultural Purposes" produced by the University of Illinois language lab that features episodes such as "Requesting a soil analysis," "Meeting a local counterpart," and "Accepting criticism of a report from the lab director." In another example, Gillespie (1985) noted a video

program created by the University of Illinois that was developed by native speakers of French featuring native speakers greeting, ordering food, and telephoning. This video program was made to accompany the textbook *Rendez-vous*, 2nd edition (Muysken, ed.). Such videos should serve to increase the focus on the development of pragmatic competence by the viewer; however, no review of the efficacy of such programs has been located to date. Other instructional programs that specifically focus the L2 learners' attention on pragmatics through the use of video are either non-existent or too obscure to find at present.

Taking into consideration the arguments and research outlined in this section, video was chosen as the most appropriate medium for the IE activities employed by this current study to teach L2 pragmatics.

2.8 AFFECT AND L2 ACQUISITION

Upon analyzing pilot project data and the literature on the subject, it was determined that learner affect was possibly an intervening variable that could influence the results of the present study. The research included in this section is relevant to why this determination was made and why feedback on learner affect was solicited and included in the present study.

Ausubel (1978) said that learning must be meaningful to be effective and permanent, and that it must be incorporated into the learner's schema and cognitive structure and not left as rote. Oxford (1989) stated that a main reason to vary instructional strategies is to raise the interest and motivation level of the learners. Furthermore, it has been noted that "Instruction which is consonant with student goals is more successful" (Bley-Vroman, 1988:19). Such observations imply that there is

an important dimension to learning that involves the attitude and motivation of the learner.

Many other scholars have demonstrated a relationship between affect and L2 learning. Horwitz (1988) showed evidence of the importance of learners' expectations, beliefs, and attitudes at the beginning L2 level. Researchers such as Chastain (1975) and Horwitz and Young (1991) have studied the negative effects of anxiety on the L2 learner. They outlined the difference between a motivational level of anxiety that resulted in more study and, hence, more L2 learning and a debilitating level of anxiety in which the learner's emotional state is too tense to facilitate study and L2 acquisition. Gardner and Lambert (1972), studying the relationship of motivation to the level of the learners' L2 acquisition, suggested the importance of such factors as integrative and instrumental motivation. They defined "integrative motivation" as the desire to be accepted into (to be integrated into) the L2 culture and "instrumental motivation" as the desire to use the L2 as the means to an end, such as for professional purposes. They found that the learners who expressed integrative motivation usually acquired a higher degree of proficiency in the L2 than did the group of learners who cited instrumental motivation for learning the L2. Dornyei (1994) also examined the influence of the learner's motivation on the language learning process and outlined ways to motivate L2 learners in order for them to obtain better L2 acquisition. Schumann (1975) examined the relationship between affect and the age of the L2 learner and noted that, as affect declined, so did L2 acquisition. Koch and Terrell (1991), Krashen (1978), and Terrell (1977, 1987) acknowledged the importance of affect in L2 acquisition when they claimed that, for the Natural Approach to be successful, it was important to create an atmosphere in which the learners' affective filter was kept to a minimum. In a study of Anglophone students

of French in Montreal, Gardner (1979) concluded that there was a linear relationship in which attitude affects motivation, which in turn affects L2 acquisition. Gardner (1980) also claimed that the L2 learners' attitudes toward the speakers of the L2 as well as their opportunities to interact with these speakers were also important factors in L2 acquisition.

These and other researchers agree that all of the factors that contribute to a learner's affect, or emotional state, influence the learner's desire to learn a L2 and have an influence on the extent to which the learner achieves L2 mastery. More empirical research supports these claims. For example, in a study with American businessmen living in Japan, Matsumoto (1994) found that those who believed that knowing Japanese would be valuable to their professional future, even after leaving Japan, acquired a higher proficiency in Japanese. Furthermore, those who had the most desire to stay for longer periods with their company in Japan became the most proficient in Japanese. Matsumoto's findings are examples of Gardner and Lambert's concepts of instrumental and integrative motivation, respectively. These findings suggest a L2 learning hierarchy based on degree and type of motivation. They support the conclusion that those who have instrumental motivation acquire the L2 at a higher level than those who lack such motivation and that those who possess integrative motivation acquire the L2 at the highest level.

Seemingly contradictory to the above studies that suggest that positive affect facilitates L2 acquisition, Eisenstein and Starbuck (1989) investigated the effect of interesting versus non-interesting subjects in the oral production of ten ESL learners. They found that grammatical accuracy declined on the topics that the participants found to be interesting. Although this finding appears to indicate that positive affect negatively influences L2 production, it more probably shows the degree of the

learners' focus on form versus focus on meaning. This study is reminiscent of studies on pragmatic oral production (e.g., Koike, 1995) that have shown that learners usually choose content over form in this context. Eisenstein and Starbuck speculate that interest in content may increase the cognitive load on the speaker and, thus, negatively affect resources available for the focus on grammar, or form. Another somewhat related explanation for these findings is that, in choice of grammatical form, positive affect (interest) seems to guide the speaker toward vernacular (unattended speech) rather than careful (attended) speech (Labov, 1972; Tarone, 1983). This phenomenon of style-shifting is independent from the concept of long-term L2 acquisition; however, it may be a factor when analyzing oral data for this study. Eisenstein and Starbuck's interesting results demonstrate that learners perform better when they concentrate on form. Therefore, although not intended for this purpose, their research can be considered as support for use of input enhancement in L2 instruction.

When affect and motivation are considered specifically in terms of L2 pragmatic acquisition, the situation is perhaps more complex than that for global L2 acquisition. Several researchers have examined the relationship between self-image, or identity, and pragmatics (e.g., Kasper, 1992; Schmidt, 1992). They conclude that one's pragmatics are intertwined with one's cultural and individual identity and that trying to acquire a second pragmatics system can cause some negative reactions in the L2 learner.

In light of the large body of research on the role of affect in learning, affect is considered as a possible intervening variable in this study. If a test group displays a significantly more positive attitude toward the video component of the course than the control group due to the different tasks that they are asked to perform, it could be

concluded that the more positive affect might have had an influence on pragmatic awareness and usage. On the other hand, if the affect of the two groups is shown to be similar, affect probably cannot be considered as an intervening variable in the study. By the same logic, if a test group shows a significantly more negative affect, but better pragmatic performance, a stronger case for the effectiveness of IE strategies can be made.

2.9 SUMMARY

Taking into consideration the aforementioned research on language acquisition and the development of pragmatic competence including recognition, awareness, and appropriate use of L2 pragmatics, the current study was developed in order to examine a specific strategy for teaching pragmatics in the Spanish L2 classroom. Based on the research on input enhancement, the role of global comprehension, and the role of video and interactive video viewing outlined so far in the current study, a methodology was developed to raise the consciousness of the language learners about general and specific L1 and L2 pragmatic differences. The possible intervening roles of time on task and affect were also considered when developing the methodology for this study. Affect was given consideration, because, as the aforementioned research indicates, it can be an important variable in the language learning process.

It is believed that this investigation can make a contribution to the fields of applied linguistics and second language acquisition by testing a research-based methodology intended to increase the pragmatic competence of the L2 learner. Given that the research indicates that pragmatic competence is an important and necessary

facet of communicative competence and that video can provide L2 pragmatic input, this research project explores a specific means by which to accomplish the goal of enhancing pragmatic input with video. An important goal of this investigation is to provide a bridge between the research and the L2 practitioner. If the methodology developed here proves effective, it can be used as a basis to develop materials for use in the L2 classroom in the future, thus providing research-based instructional materials. In the following chapters an experiment that was conducted to this end on the basis of the aforementioned research is explained and analyzed.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Data Collection Methodology

3.1 THE OBJECTIVE OF THE CURRENT STUDY

In order to study the effectiveness of a research-based strategy to help learners develop L2 pragmatic awareness, data were collected in various instructional contexts. Following Koike's (1989a) proposal that pragmatic competence might best be taught through the contextualized language in video and Schmidt's (1990a, 1990b, 1993a, 1993b) contention that IE is necessary for L2 learners to notice the pragmatics of a foreign language, this research examines one way to enhance video to develop learners' awareness of L2 pragmatics. This chapter describes the methodology of data collection based on this instructional strategy. These data are then used to address the research questions discussed in the previous chapter.

This study is the result of a process rooted in the trial and error of pilot projects conducted over several semesters. Therefore, the pilot phase of the experiment is germane to the final design of the experiment. For example, in order for the reader to understand why overt classroom teaching was minimized to the greatest extent possible and to know how the experimental treatments were developed, the processes and observations resulting from the pilot study are relevant. Therefore, footnotes are provided throughout this chapter to explain various features from the pilot study phase. More in-depth examinations of the original pilot study and subsequent trials are found in Witten (1999) and Witten (2000b). In this chapter, the methodology for the current study is now outlined in detail.

3.2 THE SUBJECTS FOR THE CURRENT STUDY

The subjects for this study were 106 students enrolled in seven classes of an intensive Spanish course at the University of Texas at Austin (UT) in the Spring 1998 semester.[19] In this intensive course the first two semesters of Spanish were covered in one semester. Placement into this course was based on the learners' ability to meet any one of the following criteria: (1) a given score on the university's Spanish placement exam;[20] (2) the completion of a course similar to the first-semester Spanish course for credit at a college or university other than UT; or (3) not having taken a Spanish class for at least the past three years, but providing records that indicate placement at this level rather than in the regular first- or second-semester Spanish courses.

Because of these stringent, strongly-enforced entrance requirements for the intensive Spanish course, the learners' ability levels were more homogeneous than those of learners enrolled in the much larger, regular first- and second- semester Spanish classes at the time the experiment was conducted. This factor is one of the bases for the selection of this intensive course over the others. Also, since these learners were new to the UT Spanish department, they did not have preconceived notions or expectations concerning the video component of the course in this particular program regardless of whether they had been exposed to L2 video at other

[19] The course is defined in the Spring 1998 syllabus, developed by the course supervisor, as follows: "Spanish 508K is an ALTERNATIVE SECOND-SEMESTER Spanish course for those with previous coursework in the language at an institution other than UT. It presents the same material included in the general second semester course (Spanish 507) while continually reviewing the material taught in the general first semester course (Spanish 506), and places special emphasis on helping students make the transition into the communicative methods used in other UT courses. Those who successfully complete the course qualify to go on to the general third semester course (Spanish 312K)." (Wildermuth, 1998).

[20] It was strongly stressed that all prospective students for the intensive course take this exam.

institutions. This decision concerning which group of learners to choose for the study was reached as a result of the pilot studies.[21]

Data were compiled for both a test and control group of learners. These learners were selected from seven sections of the intensive Spanish course. Three of these sections, comprising 44 participants, formed the final control group while four sections, including 62 participants, formed the final test group. Rather than choosing them at random from all participants in the intensive Spanish program, the subjects were drawn from seven pre-formed, intact classes. Although the participants represented intact groups, placement in a particular Spanish section is done randomly by the university's computer enrollment system. Even in rare cases in which advisors override the computer enrollment system of the university, enrollment in a particular section of a course is done only with the knowledge of the time the course is offered. Factors such as the particular instructor and the learner's background relative to other

[21] The first phase of the pilot study was undertaken with a test group that consisted of 14 participants from a similar intensive Spanish class. Two control groups were used for this initial pilot study. The first was an intact group of 18 learners at the same level taught by another instructor and the second was an intact group of 18 from third-semester Spanish taught by a third instructor. The third semester class was included to determine if the learning of pragmatic forms was only slightly enhanced by the experimental treatments. We wanted to determine if learners would have acquired the knowledge in the near future without any intervention in the learning process. Since no evidence for this hypothesis was found, this line of inquiry was dropped for subsequent experiments and only groups at the same level of development were analyzed. Learners at four different instructional levels participated in the second phase of the pilot experiment. These included learners enrolled in first-, second-, and third-semester courses as well as the intensive Spanish course. The other three levels were rejected for various reasons. The second- and third-semester learners had already been exposed to the video component of UT's Spanish program in past semesters. They had been exposed, therefore, to the traditional method of using the video and quizzes similar to those used by our control group (see Appendix A). Although the end-of-semester feedback indicated that the majority of the second- and third-semester learners preferred the experimental treatments they received to the traditional approach, they were eliminated, because their past exposure led them to have preconceived expectations. It was determined that it would be preferable to have participants who were more open-minded. It was also decided that it would be more valid to compare the reactions and attitudes of test and control groups who had been exposed only to either the experimental or traditional instructional method at the university. The first-semester learners were not chosen, because there was much diversity concerning these learners' previous language experience. These learners ranged from true beginners to native speakers hoping to enhance their grade point averages.

learners in a particular section are not considered. A few of the lower division classes at UT are offered by faculty members whose names appear in the UT course catalogue, but the overwhelming majority are taught by graduate student instructors whose names are not listed. All sections of the intensive course chosen for this particular study were taught by graduate student instructors. Although it is possible for a student to switch sections in the first week of classes in search of a particular instructor or time, this practice is rare at UT because lower division courses are normally closed by the beginning of the semester.

In regard to class time, it could be claimed that the time for which the participants registered was a reflection of their majors or their personality traits. Regarding the learners' majors, however, due to the university's language requirement for all students, most enrollees in the intensive Spanish course are either Freshmen or Sophomores who are fulfilling basic requirements rather than more senior-level students who are taking requirements for their particular majors. The university-wide foreign language requirement also results in a wide diversity of majors among those registered for any section of a lower division language course. Concerning the influence of personality traits on selection of class time, due to the large demand for Spanish classes at the university, learners often cannot register for their first choice of class time. They usually have to accept whatever time slot is available. Furthermore, while time could be a factor affecting the random nature of subject selection, it would most likely not be a major one since the different classes involved in the current study were held at different times during the day.[22]

[22] One control section met at 8:00 in the morning, one test section met at 4:00 in the afternoon, and the remaining two control and three test sections met at midday between 11:00 a.m. and 2:00 p.m.

The decision of which instructor's sections to place in test or control groups was also virtually random. At the beginning of the semester, the researcher spoke briefly at the instructors' meeting and told them only that she was conducting an experiment for her dissertation that concerned the *Destinos* video portion of the curriculum. As a reward for participating, the researcher offered to correct all of the instructors' *Destinos* quizzes. More specifically, for those instructors in the test group, the quizzes were provided and corrected, while for those in the control group, the objective, plot-oriented, traditional quizzes they administered were corrected by the researcher. The control group instructors were told that their quizzes would be monitored by the researcher.[23] The instructors responded enthusiastically about participating, and both test and control groups were established immediately by means of a sign-up sheet that was presented at the meeting. Assignments were made on a first come, first served basis. Instructors signed up in either the test or control column based on whether they preferred to make their own quizzes or have them made by the researcher or simply because spaces were still available in a given column. Since more than eleven instructors expressed an interest in participating, a waiting list was also created. The instructors were eager to participate in the study not only because the researcher offered to lighten their workload, but also because this assistance was offered in an area that many considered a nuisance and even a waste of pedagogical time. Others expressed that they never knew what to do with

[23] The control group treatments consisted of true/false, multiple choice, or short answer objective questions dealing with the plot and cultural information presented in the video. These treatments were quizzes, which were administered the day following the viewing of the assigned video episodes (see Appendix A for sample questions.) This method was recommended by the department, although experimentation with other forms of evaluation was not discouraged.

the video component of the class and were happy that someone was trying something new.[24]

In conclusion, aside from the arguably random selection of individuals assigned to each section, inclusion in the experiment and assignment to either control or test group was considered to be performed in a virtually random manner. No instructor or section was given preferential treatment when choosing participants or making assignments for the investigation.

Among the initial group of approximately 275 potential participants, three subgroups were considered for elimination in order to control for pre-existing pragmatic knowledge. Spanish heritage speakers and those who had experienced over three months of travel/life in Spanish-speaking countries were eliminated because, as experience from our pilot studies showed, some had already obtained a pragmatic competence before exposure to the video and related activities in this experiment. The small number of participants who had been exposed to the *Destinos* video in the past were also considered for elimination because of difficulty in controlling for the instructional strategies employed by previous instructors and because of their familiarity with the storyline.

Pursuant to extensive interviews with most of these particular learners and a concurrent preliminary examination of the data, however, no member of this subgroup was eliminated. All of these learners who were interviewed reported that

[24] Some anecdotal evidence of the instructors' attitudes toward the video component of the course is demonstrated by the following examples. Although the supervisor of this course stipulated that the video component of the course was crucial for developing listening comprehension and that no one was to eliminate this component, one instructor on our waiting list did completely eliminate it upon learning that he would not be able to participate in the study. One of the test group instructors said that his students found the treatments to be too much work and thought the video component of the course should be a "relaxed and fun" activity. He agreed and dropped out of the study following the third of nine treatments.

the video had been used by their previous Spanish teachers strictly for enrichment purposes. In other words, the video had been used only to provide comprehensible input; no input enhancement or interactive video viewing activities had been presented to them. The informants also reported that the focus of the *Destinos* video component in their former classes had been on the plot and not on the formal properties of the language. Moreover, all of the participants who were interviewed commented that in their high school classes, the video viewing often occurred on Friday afternoons and had no effect on their grades, so they were not very motivated to pay attention. They claimed that their past exposure had not helped them with the video requirement in their Spanish classes at the University of Texas, and the preliminary data confirmed that they did not show a superior pragmatic competence relative to other participants in the study. It was determined, therefore, that previous exposure to the video on the part of the participants for this particular study would not influence the outcome of this experiment involving input enhancement and pragmatics, so these learners were included in both test and control groups.

Throughout the semester, all the approximately 275 learners in the initial eleven sections were treated equally, and the only variable considered was whether a given section had been assigned to the test or control group. This procedure was followed because the researcher did not want either the instructors or the learners to have any more information about the nature of the study than was absolutely necessary. Also, as a practical concern, the instructors had to have grades for every student regardless of the criteria for the experiment. Because of these issues, the elimination process for the current study was not realized until the end of the experiment period. After all the data were collected, Spanish heritage speakers, those with extensive travel abroad experience, and informants who, for reasons that will be

addressed later, did not complete all three final assessment exercises, were eliminated. The result was a final corpus of 62 learners from four classes in the test group and 44 learners from three classes in the control group.

Therefore, of the eleven original sections that began the study, complete data were collected from seven sections. All seven instructors who participated in the final experiment were experienced graduate student instructors in the Spanish program. Three of the four test group instructors were female, and one was male. Three were native English speakers and one was a native Spanish speaker. All three control group instructors were female. Two were native English speakers and one was a native Spanish speaker. No difference in quality or enthusiasm between the two sets of instructors regarding participation in the study was detected. Hence, there was no reason to believe that the variables of individual instructor differences or their assignment to either test or control group had any significant influence on the results of the experiment.

Of the eleven original classes, one test group withdrew from the study early in the semester (see footnote 6) and one test and two control groups withdrew near the end of the semester. These latter three instructors informed the researcher that they and their students were simply too overwhelmed as final exam time approached to spend any class time at all on the video component of the course, which they viewed as very limited in importance and which counted for very few points on the final exam. It could be argued that the seven of the eleven original instructors who remained in the study until the end were the more enthusiastic participants. Since those who withdrew represented two test and two control groups, however, the ratio of test to control participants was relatively undisturbed. Given this situation, it was determined that the outcome of the experiment was probably not greatly affected.

To summarize the subject selection process, the original 275 informants were reduced to the final 106 participants in the study for four reasons: (1) some were eliminated by the researcher because they were either heritage speakers or had spent more than three months of study/travel abroad; (2) some were eliminated because of absence on the day that the final written and oral data were obtained; (3) some did not complete the recognition task included with the final exam; and (4) complete data could not be collected for four of the original eleven sections. It is believed that, for the reasons mentioned in this section, the design of this investigation is valid. The process used for subject selection and assignment was virtually random. Learner assignment to specific sections and the selection of instructors and their assignment to test and control groups were nearly random. It is also submitted that the methodology of the investigation, which is further explained in the following sections, motivated the inclusion of instructors and learners who were unaware of the primary goals of the study, and who were, therefore, unable to influence the results of the inquiry.

3.3 AN OVERVIEW OF THE EXPERIMENTAL TREATMENTS

In order to determine the effects of input enhancement and interactive video viewing on L2 pragmatic awareness and use, the participants in the test group were exposed to scripted native speaker interactions through the use of pedagogical video and asked to focus their attention on the similarities and differences between English and Spanish speech acts. Speech acts in question included requests, complaints, and apologies, among others. The learners were asked to (a) find an example of a speech act, (b) specify which type of speech act the utterance was, (c) provide the context in which it was uttered (regarding characters and situation), (d) provide the actual quote,

and (e) compare the utterance to what they believed would be said in English or another language (or English dialect) with which they were familiar (for example, see Treatment 1, Appendix D, Item #2).

The learners' attention was also focused on the selection of formal or informal forms of address (*usted/tú*) employed by native Spanish speakers. The participants were asked to (a) find an example of a character using either the formal or informal form of address, (b) note the characters and the situation in which the utterance was heard (context), (c) provide the actual quote, and (d) analyze why they thought that particular form of address was used in that particular context (for example, see Appendix D, Treatment 1, Item #1).

To serve as distractors and for pedagogical reasons, the nine treatments given to the test group also asked the learners to focus on the components of grammatical and strategic competence, which are two components of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). In addition, the treatments asked questions dealing with new cultural knowledge (see Appendix D, Treatment 1, Items #3-#5 for examples of these three categories). Plot summaries were also requested on each treatment for two reasons. The first reason, not pertinent to the study, was because learners in the UT Spanish department are often asked about the *Destinos* plot on their departmental final exams. The second reason, relevant to this research, was to encourage learners to pay attention to content while also focusing on form. VanPatten (1989) suggested that, in some instances, it is difficult for L2 learners to do both. To overcome this problem, learners should ideally watch the required videos twice; first, to focus solely on plot, and secondm to pay close attention to form. Because of the weight given the video component in the learners' overall grade (4.5%), however, it was unrealistic to expect them to dedicate such a large amount of time to such an

endeavor.[25] At the end of the viewing period, information was requested in order to ascertain if there was evidence of any deficiency in global comprehension on the part of the test group.

Throughout the nine weekly treatments, the test group participants were asked to complete the plot summaries in Spanish, to be graded for content only. This procedure was requested so that they would have the opportunity to practice writing in Spanish, especially in the past tenses. The participants were allowed to respond either in English or Spanish to the remaining items in the treatments. The reason for allowing this option is because learners at this level of language development typically do not have the skill to articulate abstract analytical ideas in the L2 (Clark & Clifford, 1988). Since the purpose of this project was to stimulate analytical thinking on the part of the learners in order for them to develop an awareness and use of appropriate pragmatic forms, they were permitted to respond in English. It can also be noted that in some instances, such as in the first item on Treatments 6 through 8 (Appendix D), once the learners were familiar with an item, it was later stated in Spanish rather than in English.

Though all sections of the test group treatments were considered pedagogically important, only the sections on pragmatics, referred to as

[25] Experience during the original pilot study confirmed this expectation. In the original pilot, learners were asked to view the episodes once for content and then to view them a second time in order to do the form-focused input enhancement activity. Because of concerns raised by VanPatten (1989), it was determined that this would be the optimum way for learners to perform the task. Anonymous feedback solicited throughout the semester revealed that only two of the fourteen learners ever viewed the assigned episodes twice, and even they soon abandoned this method. Realizing that this expectation was unrealistic, it was eliminated for phase two of the pilot study and for the current experiment. Learners' unwillingness to watch the episodes once for content and once for form also led the researcher to include the third research question in the current experiment and to develop a way to obtain data by which to address this concern. Interestingly, despite noncompliance with the request to view the episodes twice in the original pilot study, fewer than 5% of the subjects claimed that the attention to form required of them while watching the video series interfered with their comprehension of the plot.

"sociolinguistic competence" on the treatments, are relevant to this study. The other sections served as distractors so that neither the participants nor their instructors knew that the focus was only on pragmatics.

The nine treatments were administered once a week during weeks four through twelve of a fifteen-week semester following notions of inductive and deductive learning. Some of the items in the treatments were more inductive in nature, asking participants to report their own examples of uses of address and speech acts from the entire viewing (see Treatments 1, 2, and 3, Appendix D, Items #1 and 2). Other items were more deductive in nature, and asked learners to analyze a particular quote (see Treatments 4 and 5, Appendix D, Items #1-#3). The items in the treatments are not inductive in the pure sense, because learners were asked to focus on form rather than to glean patterns unconsciously. Since the learner had to choose specific elements from a corpus as opposed to drawing general conclusions from a specific example, however, the former items are relatively inductive in comparison with the latter type of items, which are relatively deductive in nature.

3.31 The nine experimental treatments

The two types of items, one of an inductive nature and the other of a deductive nature, were alternated throughout the nine treatments to make the learner employ different learning styles (Oxford, 1989) and to decrease learner boredom by alternating instructional strategies. This boredom, seen in the pilot studies, was manifested by repetitive, robotic responses.[26] The initial treatments of the current

[26] In the original pilot project, the more inductive approach was used exclusively for all nine treatments. It was found that the learners became bored, as reflected by mechanical and repetitive answers in the later treatments. Adding the deductive questions alleviated this problem.

study use the more inductive, global line of inquiry because, as shown in the piloting process, learners reported that it was easier for them to glean examples of speech acts from the entire viewing session than for them to focus on a particular speech act. Also, there is some research that suggests that the more inductive approach may make a concept more meaningful because it is a form of self-discovery (Hadley, 1993).

In the beginning of the experiment the same inductive approach was used for three consecutive treatments before styles were alternated. While the original pilot project illustrated that over 80% of the learners were able to find adequate examples for the sociolinguistic section of the treatments by the first viewing, the remaining learners needed more experience with these items (Witten, 1999). During the second phase of the pilot studies with revised, more "user friendly" treatments, by the third treatment virtually all learners understood what was being asked of them in the sociolinguistic sections (Witten, 2000b). Since the pilot showed that using the same line of inquiry for three weeks in a row helped the learners to sharpen their concept of intercultural pragmatic similarities and differences, the same type of inquiry was repeated in the first three treatments for the current study.[27]

Following the three initial treatments, items on Treatments 4 through 9 were alternately inductive and deductive in nature. The deductive items, which asked learners to analyze a particular quote, can be seen in Treatments 4 and 5, Appendices

[27] In a study dealing with recognition of pragmatic forms, Koike (1989a) also found that learners exhibit a high level of ability to recognize pragmatic forms with a minimum of explanation. In her study, the learners were asked to listen to communicative exchanges and identify which speech act was being performed. In our pilot study, learners listenened to an hour of video and selected examples of speech acts and forms of address from the dialogue. Although the methodology for the two studies was quite different, learners in both investigations could identify speech acts quite easily indicating that once their attention is focused, the concept is readily understood. This observation aided in the development of the current study, because it gave us the confidence to limit the role of the classroom instructors in the explanation of the task that learners were to perform. Minimizing the instructors' role was necessary in order to minimize the effect of metapragmatic classroom discussion for the current study.

D, Items #1-#3. For example, in treatment 4, the participants listened to a particular exchange between two characters. The boyfriend of one of the characters is flirting with this character's friend, who also happens to be the protagonist of the video series. The viewers were asked to note the exact words of the flirtatious behavior and the protagonist's rejection to this advance. The participants were also asked to note the exact words used by the protagonist to suggest later to her friend that there may be problems concerning her choice of current boyfriend. Learners then compared these utterances to those they believed would be used in the same situation by English speakers. In Treatment 5 (Appendix D, Items #1-#3) the deductive line of inquiry was repeated in order to provide the learners more experience with this type of item. An inductive type response was also solicited to provide the learners with variety and contrast. In Treatments 6 through 9, specific information was also interwoven with general observations, so the learners alternated between relatively inductive and deductive approaches to each of the areas of inquiry.

Many considerations influenced the format of the treatments. In addition to those mentioned above, further consideration was given to the pragmatic content of the video program itself. For example, the pragmatics in Treatment 4 involved in the incident dealing with romance was interesting to the learners and Treatment 5 contained an example of negation used in conjunction with a Spanish suggestion. The latter provides an interesting contrast between the two languages that has been analyzed in the Spanish L2 pragmatics literature (Koike, 1994, 1998). In Treatment 6 (Item #2 & 3), the learners were asked to give inductive examples and also to combine two lines of inquiry, speech acts and forms of address, which had been separated previously.

In Treatments 1 through 3, the learners are asked to look at the concepts of formality and informality (the use of the "*usted*" and "*tú*" forms of address, respectively) and the concept of speech acts in separate items. In Treatment 4, one of the speech acts that the learners are asked to analyze involves the formal/informal Spanish address system. In Treatment 6, learners examine the concepts of formality and politeness as they both intersect and find examples of these two concepts as they are manifested in speech acts. This more sophisticated line of inquiry was found to be within the ability of the learners of this level at this point in the semester. Treatment 7 repeated this strategy to benefit learners who had problems in Treatment 6 and to reinforce the comprehension of the other participants. At the time the learners viewed Treatment 8, they were studying the informal and formal command forms of Spanish in the classroom. Therefore, in Treatment 8 (Item # 2 and 3), they were asked to provide examples of characters using each of these grammatical forms and to analyze their utterances. This approach was taken so that the learners would notice the interactive nature between pragmatics and grammar and also to reinforce classroom learning. Treatment 9 (Item #2) solicits an analysis of specific examples of the different forms of address used by the characters and both relatively inductive and deductive items were included in the speech act section (Items #3 and 4). This format encouraged the participants to use all the strategies they developed throughout the course of the study. The same techniques that were used in the "sociolinguistic competence" section of the treatments, such as varying instructional strategy, were also employed for other areas of the treatments that were not pertinent to this study in order to maintain their role as distractors.[28] In the written final assessment instrument

[28] For example, in Treatment 4, the participants were still asked to find a general example of a newly-learned grammatical concept (Item #4). Later, in Treatment 6, the learners analyzed specific

used in this study, the test group participants were asked for their reactions to the deductive versus the inductive types of approaches used throughout the treatments (Appendix E, Items A16 and A17.) The participants' responses to these items are presented and analyzed in Chapter Four.

3.4 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NINE EXPERIMENTAL TREATMENTS

Prior to viewing the first episode of the video for the semester, all participants in the study were given a syllabus with an explanation of the video component of the class. The syllabus (Wildermuth, 1998) presented the *Destinos* video component of the course as "a videotape telecourse for beginning and intermediate Spanish which you will use to develop listening comprehension and cultural knowledge." In addition, the participants in the test group were given a brief explanation and definition of sociolinguistic and strategic competence (see Appendix C). By providing this information, nearly all learners immediately understood what was being elicited in the treatments. Also, because much effort was made to minimize the role of classroom instruction in this study in order to focus as exclusively on the role of enhanced interactive video viewing as possible, the participants' instructors were not given the necessary information to explain these sections. Providing a handout to all test group participants also assured uniformity of explanation to the learners.[29]

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grammatical points dealing with preterite and imperfect verbal aspect while also looking for general grammatical features (Items #2, 3, and 4). These two approaches were mixed to keep the learners more engaged and, more importantly for the current study, to maintain the role of the non-pertinent items as distractors.

[29] In order to avoid metapragmatic discussion in the classroom, the test and control group instructors for the current study were not informed about the nature of the research. Furthermore, the feedback to the test group participants was kept to the absolute minimum that the researchers believed the learners would require in order to perform required tasks. Pearson (2001) took another approach. She used

An important decision made in this investigation was to not inform the participants or the instructors about the nature of the study. Due to problems encountered during the piloting process concerning individual instructor input influencing the outcome, it was decided that the learners would be exposed only to the experimental treatments, the video, and minimal, essential feedback from the researcher, who remained anonymous to the learners until the end of the semester. It was believed that a pretest to determine the participants' prior pragmatic knowledge might alert both instructors and learners to the purpose of the study and could taint the results. This concern is especially relevant because this study examines general awareness of L2 pragmatic differences in addition to specific pragmatic features reported and produced by the test and control groups. Both instructors and participants were told that the researcher was developing an alternative instructional strategy concerning the video component of the course rather than examining pragmatic awareness.

A pretest-posttest format was also eschewed because feedback instruments were desired to gauge written, oral, and recognition abilities involving several pragmatic features and, given that the study began with 275 participants, the administration of a pretest in three areas with an adequate addition of distractors would have been logistically cumbersome for both instructors and participants. Two sources of research were relied upon to make the assumption that the information solicited by the feedback instruments at the end of the study tested information that was unlikely known to the participants when the study began. First, research

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small segments of the *Destinos* video series with which learners had been familiar from their previous semester and isolated the variable of metapragmatic classroom discussions to determine their effect on the development of learners' pragmatic competence. For results of this different approach to incorporate pragmatics in the L2 classroom curriculum, see Pearson (2001).

mentioned earlier suggests that (a) pragmatic competence does not begin to form until the L2 learner reaches the ACTFL intermediate level, (b) the median senior L2 major displays only a limited pragmatic knowledge, and (c) pragmatic competence is still developing in learners at the superior level (Hadley, 1993). In fact, Hadley (1993) noted that only at the ILR Levels 4 and 5, which are beyond the ACTFL levels, do learners exhibit pragmatic competence in the L2. Based on this research, it was assumed that the first-year language learners selected for this study did not have a preexisting L2 pragmatic knowledge.

Another safeguard employed in this project to compensate for the decision to forego a pretest for prior pragmatic knowledge on the part of the participants was in the selection of items for the treatments and feedback instruments. Throughout the piloting process, participants were asked to inform their instructors on new information learned through watching the *Destinos* video. At the end of the semester, they were asked what new information they had learned from the video and classroom discussions. Repeated and frequent anecdotal feedback from these learners was used to develop both the treatments and the feedback instruments for the current study. This procedure provides confidence that the items solicited in this investigation are normally new to learners at this L2 level. Also, as mentioned earlier, the course chosen for this study, the first-year Intensive Spanish course, consisted of a relatively homogeneous group of learners. Instead of comparing the knowledge of the participants before and after the experimental period, this investigation focuses on comparing the awareness and performance of the test group to that of the control group following the video-viewing period. Due to the subject selection process employed, if statistical significance is found, it is unlikely that the 62 final test subjects had prior knowledge coincidentally as opposed to the 44 of those

in the control group. The methodology used does affect the claims that can be made from the data, however. Claims regarding L2 acquisition, which represents growth in learning over a period of time, cannot be made. Claims can be made only regarding the awareness and use of certain pragmatic features by the two groups relative to each other following exposure to the same video.

To minimize classroom instruction, the researcher's written interaction with the participants was virtually the only formal pragmatics instruction the learners received outside of the video and the treatments themselves. This interaction was kept to a minimum, only informing the learners of what seemed absolutely necessary in order for them to perform the elicited tasks. The interaction consisted of the handout at the beginning of the semester followed by feedback on the nine treatments. This feedback consisted mainly of check marks, stars, and smiley faces for appropriate responses and x's for inappropriate responses (Appendices H and I). Comments in prose were kept to an absolute minimum.[30] The nine treatments were graded exclusively by the researcher.

The intent of this project was to develop both an awareness of interlingual pragmatic differences and more appropriate L2 pragmatics usage by the learners. Therefore, in more inductive sections of the treatments in which the learners had to analyze utterances, the concern was not so much whether the analysis was "correct,"

[30] The role of outside instruction (e.g. feedback on the treatments) was minimized in the current study because of experience during the piloting process. Throughout the pilot studies, a final written feedback instrument was administered to determine which pragmatic cross-linguistic contrasts were most salient to the learners. Since the responses of our individual groups reflected points that had been emphasized during classroom discussions conducted while reviewing the learners' responses on the treatments, the relative importance of the enhanced video viewing was unclear. It could not be ascertained whether the participants learned mostly from the input enhancement activities completed during interactive video viewing or if they received most of their pragmatic knowledge from their instructors. Therefore, the experiment was revised to reflect the current methodology that minimizes direct teaching via feedback, which is a unique characteristic of the current study.

but whether the learner was exhibiting a pragmatic awareness. Therefore, the grading of such items was rather lenient. Credit was usually denied only if an item was not fully addressed, especially when analysis was absent. In regard to the more deductive items in which the participants were asked to analyze a specific quote, the grading reflected the learners' ability to record and analyze the language used by the characters in the video. Although the video was scripted and nonauthentic, it was assumed that the characters used appropriate Spanish pragmatics. In other words, the characters in the video were assumed to be models of correct Spanish pragmatics for the learners. They served as the learners' "instructors" of L2 pragmatics, since the video provided presumably the only exposure the learners had to interactive NS speech. In the following chapter, some specific learner responses to the relatively inductive and deductive items, including researcher feedback, are provided (see also Appendices H and I for examples of "typical" responses).

As the reader may note, it was determined that the treatments required much work on the part of the participants given that they were worth only 5 points each (.5% of the overall course grade).[31] Due to concerns that the factor of workload might negatively influence the attitude of the test-group learners, it was determined that questions on the number of assignments completed, time on task, and affect would be included on the final feedback instruments in order to compare the test and control groups in these areas.

When the graded treatments were returned to the instructors, a list of two or three sample "good" answers for each item of the treatments was provided. Instructors were asked to take two or three minutes of class time and to have learners

[31] The treatments were worth 10 or 15 points each during the piloting process, but it was not possible to offer more credit for the video component of the course at the time of the current study..

read their responses aloud to the class. This minimal amount of feedback was requested only so that those who had misunderstood what was solicited would understand why points were deducted. This portion of class time was the only time allowed for the treatments.[32] The participants' grades on these nine treatments constituted the entire grade for the video-viewing component of the course. The video component of the course counted for only 4.5% of the learners' overall grade for the course.

3.5 THE CONTROL GROUP

While the learners in the test group completed nine treatments during the video-viewing sessions, a control group took in-class quizzes the day after each of the nine video viewing assignments. The control group quizzes were based solely on plot. Examples of these quizzes are found in Appendix A. Copies of control group quizzes were reviewed to make sure there were no pragmatic references. The mention of pragmatic or grammatical features of the particular episodes by the control group instructors before or following the viewing of these episodes was not controlled for in this study. Since such information was not solicited in the follow-up control group quizzes, however, it seemed reasonable that it would not likely be the focus of instruction. Also, the instructors were not told what NOT to do or say in class,

[32] Both test and control groups were allowed to participate in various games and activities from The Student Viewer's Handbook to Accompany Destinos: An Introduction to Spanish (VanPatten, Marks, Teschner, & Dorwick, 1992b) and from a departmental instructors' activity guide in class following the viewing of the assigned episodes. Individual instructor's use of these activities varied, but the extent of their use by the individual instructors was deemed irrelevant to the pilot or any subsequent studies. None of the activities dealt with pragmatic features of the language or the language used in the video per se, but rather used the plot and characters of the video as a means to teach grammar lessons that coincided with the lessons in the main textbook.

because this procedure would involve explaining the nature of the study. The instructors knew only that one of the objectives of the investigation was to devise a new way to utilize the video series in the classroom. Due to these factors, the researcher was reasonably certain that the focus of *Destinos* instruction in the control group classroom was on the plot alone.

Though some control group instructors varied the type of quizzes given to their students in order to avoid boredom, the salient feature of the control group quizzes was that they were aimed at the **content** of the videos as opposed to linguistic features of the characters' utterances. The control group quizzes took two general forms: (a) a few true/false or multiple-choice questions about details of the plot; or (b) questions eliciting a few sentences summarizing the plot. In the latter type of quiz, grammar was sometimes corrected, but it was based on classroom instruction as opposed to input enhancement activities while viewing the videos. The control group did not respond to form-focused input enhancement instruments while viewing the video, nor were they tested on the formal properties of the language used in the video. They generally viewed the video just as one would watch a television show in one's L1.

3.6 AN OVERVIEW OF THE WRITTEN, ORAL, AND MULTIPLE-CHOICE FEEDBACK INSTRUMENTS

In order to answer the three research questions posed in this study, three measures were taken at the end of the semester. In week 14, written and oral feedback instruments were administered and, in week 16, a multiple-choice feedback instrument was included with the learners' final exam. The extensive written feedback instrument, described in sections 3.61, 3.611, and 3.62, investigated several

aspects of this study and addressed all three research questions. The other two instruments (oral and multiple choice) focused exclusively on the first research question.

3.61 The written, oral, and multiple-choice feedback instruments

Three language performance measures were employed to answer the first research question (What is the role of conscious awareness in the learning of L2 pragmatic features?). The question addressed whether our method of stimulating conscious awareness during video viewing has a statistically relevant effect on the learners' awareness and use of Spanish L2 pragmatic features. In order to determine the learners' pragmatic awareness and performance, both the test and the control groups completed an open-ended written feedback instrument (Appendix E, items B1-B14), an oral role play activity (Appendix F), and a brief, optional multiple-choice section on the written final exam (Appendix G). These three instruments were used specifically to assess the recognition and production of pragmatic features of Spanish to which the learners were exposed in the video episodes that they had viewed.

Three different feedback instruments were utilized to assess different types of processing and competence in the L2. The three tasks can be viewed according to the degree of focus on form, the degree of focus on meaning, and the degree of communicative control allowed the learner. In terms of focus or attention to form, which Salaberry and López-Ortega (1998:519) define as "planning time and focus on the grammatical item," the oral role play instrument is the most demanding task of the three tasks solicited in this study, since it allows for the least amount of planning time

and focus on grammar or pragmatics. While both of the other two tasks allow for more planning time than the oral role play, the multiple-choice task provides the learner the most focus on the formal properties of the language because possible answers are in view. It is, therefore, less demanding than the written, open-ended, short-answer task. Studies by Ellis (1987) and Tarone (1988) have shown attention to form to be highly predictive of L2 grammatical accuracy. It is hypothesized that the same is true for pragmatic appropriateness. Assuming this hypothesis is correct, the learners should provide more pragmatically appropriate responses on written and multiple choice than on oral feedback instruments if they are aware of what is more appropriate because they have more time to focus on form.

With respect to focus on meaning, also referred to as communicative pressure, which is defined by the functional requirements of a language task (Salaberry & López-Ortega, 1988), the oral role play generates the highest degree of communicative pressure of our three feedback instruments. Communicative pressure is the highest on the oral task because participants have to interact and it is important that the meaning of their utterances is understood by their interlocutor. Of the remaining two tasks, the multiple-choice exercise generates the least communicative pressure because the learners are given a finite number of choices and do not have to worry about conveying meaning to an interlocutor. The open-ended written exercise in Part B of the written feedback provides more communicative pressure than the multiple-choice exercise because meaning has to be conveyed to a reader, but the written exercise provides less pressure than the oral role-play exercise in which a listener has to understand the utterance in order for the conversation to continue. According to research conducted by Labov (1972) and by Lantolf and Kanji (1982), grammatical accuracy in language production correlates negatively with

communicative pressure. If the same phenomenon occurs with pragmatic appropriateness, the learners are again expected to have the most difficulty producing appropriate L2 forms on the oral role play and the least difficulty with their recognition on the multiple-choice exercise because of the relative demands of focus on meaning and form involved with the different tasks.

In terms of communicative control, which is defined as the learners' ability to manage and utilize their linguistic sources in the L2 (Salaberry & López-Ortega, 1998:518), our written short-answer task on the written feedback instrument is the most demanding of the learners because they must provide either an appropriate or an inappropriate response. The oral role play allows for the most control because the learners can simply avoid features that are difficult or unstable for their level of L2 production. The multiple-choice task falls between the other two in level of control provided to the learners because, although structures cannot be avoided, options are provided (Salaberry & López-Ortega, 1998:519). In their study, Salaberry and López-Ortega concluded that accuracy in L2 grammatical production is likely to increase as a result of communicative control. If their claims apply to pragmatic competence, both groups of participants in the current study should perform better on the muliple-choice than on the other two feedback instruments because options are provided. The multiple-choice format, therefore, reflects recognition rather than production of appropriate pragmatic forms. The degree of communicative control should not influence the relative outcome of the oral and written instruments, however, because the avoidance of appropriate pragmatic forms as well as the use of inappropriate pragmatic forms are both infelicitous in communication.

As these pressures associated with each type of task indicate, there are many factors involved in the various forms of linguistic expression. It is difficult to

measure what the learners actually know; one can measure only what they recognize or produce on a given task, and any type of task has its drawbacks. The main reason three tasks have been included in this experiment, therefore, is due to an attempt to provide a more complete picture of the learners' pragmatic knowledge. Results from the three feedback instruments are analyzed both independently and together in the following chapter in order to provide more information on the two groups of learners relative to each other.

The first two feedback instruments (written and oral) were administered to all of the participants one week after they had viewed the final episode of the video for the semester. This administration was accomplished during the investigator's classroom visits as well as during learners' visits to their instructors' and the researcher's offices. While the participants were filling out the questionnaire in Appendix E, they were pulled out in pairs to do the oral role play exercise in Appendix F. The learners were told that their answers would be seen and heard only by the researcher and that their responses would be held in strict confidence. Learners who were absent on the day that their class was given these two feedback instruments were eliminated from the study. This procedure assured that no one would be informed of what was being elicited with these two instruments, which could compromise the validity of the project.

The third feedback instrument (Appendix G) was administered two weeks after the first two instruments, or three weeks after viewing the final episode of the video, as part of the final exam. It consisted of eight multiple-choice questions. Although learners were informed that this section was optional and would not affect their grades, most of them responded to it. Those who chose not to respond were eliminated from the study.

These three feedback instruments tested the learners' choice of the *"tú"* 'you' (informal) versus *"usted"* 'you' (formal) forms of address, as well as their knowledge of the pragmatic functions of various speech acts presented in the video. Many concepts were tested several times in order to assess the consistency of the learners' responses. The specific items chosen for the three feedback instruments were those that had been commonly noted by the learners in their nine homework assignments throughout the piloting process. This procedure of item selection was followed in order to ensure that the elicited items were clear and represented utterances that had the most relevance to the Spanish L2 learners who viewed the *Destinos* series. In the following sections, these specific items included on the three feedback instruments are reviewed.

3.611 The written feedback instrument

The written feedback instrument (Appendix E) was divided into two sections. The items in Part A and Item B15, explained in detail in section 3.62, included considerations such as affect, time on task, and global comprehension in order to address the second and third research questions. Items 1 through 14 on Part B of the written feedback were designed specifically to address the first research question regarding the role of conscious awareness in the learning of L2 pragmatic features. This section included fourteen items used in the *Destinos* video, mostly in the short answer format, to assess the informants' awareness and use of Spanish pragmatics. The informants were asked to think of the video when responding to these items. For this study, the utterances from the video that were tested were considered to be

pragmatically appropriate by NS Spanish speakers and served as a standard by which to evaluate the participants' responses.

It was determined that Items B1, B3, B4, B6, B8, and B12 (Appendix E) elicited mainly the use of appropriate Spanish pragmatic forms. Items B1, B3, and B8 concerned pragmatics involving the formal/informal Spanish address system. Item B4 presented a Spanish suggestion form, Item B6 involved introducing one friend to another, and Item B12 involved the use of downgraders in Spanish requests.

It was determined that Items B2, B5, B7, B9, B10, B11, B13, and B14 examined mainly the learners' awareness of differences in pragmatically appropriate forms used in English and Spanish. Item B2 involved greetings and closings used in telephone conversations, Item B5 examined a request, Item B7 involved interjections used as conversational strategies, Items B9, 10, and 11 presented the concepts of politeness, consolation, and requesting strategies, respectively, while Item B13 examined dialectal and pronunciation differences within the Spanish-speaking world, and Item B14 involved insults.

3.612 The oral role play feedback instrument

In order to determine the efficacy of the treatments regarding the learners' spontaneous oral production, an oral role play feedback instrument was developed (Appendix F). Experience gained throughout the piloting process was used to develop this instrument. The type of instrument originally used, which involved self-reported responses to hypothetical situations, was abandoned in the current study in favor of a role-play activity. It was determined that the role-play exercise provided a more realistic indicator of the learners' use of pragmatic features in Spanish. Also, it

was believed that in role-play situations, the learners' focus would be more content rather than form-oriented because they would be attempting to communicate globally with an interlocutor rather than trying to provide the correct answer to a test. It was believed that examples of less monitored, more realistic, spontaneous speech would be produced in a role-play task.[33]

Empirical research supports our hypotheses and observations. Studies by Labov (1972) and Tarone (1983) placed adult L2 language production on a continuum determined by the amount of attention paid to speech. The continuum ranged from the most monitored, careful speech to the least monitored, vernacular speech. According to Tarone, the vernacular speech should be considered that which best reflects the linguistic knowledge of the L2 learner. In our experiments it was determined that these researchers' concept of vernacular speech was best displayed in role-play tasks.

Four role play situations were chosen for this study. These contexts put the learners into situations similar to those that they had witnessed while viewing the video series. The first situation (Appendix F, Item #1) concerned a phone conversation that elicited a greeting, a request, and a termination of the conversation. This same information was also solicited in Part B, Items #2, 11, and 12 of the written feedback. Also, all of the role play items were analyzed for form of address used by

[33] The oral feedback task in the original pilot project was an oral elicitation of various pragmatic features based on situations that the learners had noted in the treatments completed while they viewed the video. Later, this practice was abandoned in favor of role-play situations. Observations of the learners in the two different types of oral situations during the piloting process led to the hypotheses stated in the current study. In the former elicitation method, the participants appeared nervous throughout the activity and behaved as if they were taking a test; however, when administered a role-play exercise such as that in Appendix F, the learners' nervousness subsided once they began to interact with their interlocutors. In the role-play situations, most participants appeared to communicate in a more naturalistic way.

the interlocutors. In Item #2 of the role play exercise, learners were asked to greet, order a drink in a five-star restaurant, and to respond to the request. This behavior was presented quite frequently to the learners as they viewed the video. Throughout the pilot and the current study, examples of such restaurant behavior were often noted by the learners on the treatments. In the third situation, the participants were asked to perform the speech acts of introducing a friend and responding to the introduction. This speech behavior was also solicited in Item B6 of the written feedback. Finally, Item #4 of the oral role play asked participants to reenact a scene they had seen in the video in which the boyfriend of one character flirted with that character's friend behind her back. This situation was used to determine awareness and use of the informal/formal address system in Spanish.

In the original pilot study learners' responses were coded as pragmatically "good," "fair," or "poor." It was later determined that this subjective and qualitative method of analysis should be transformed into a more objective and quantitative method that would permit more rigorous tests for statistical significance. Therefore, the original method was discarded for one in which the researcher coded the data for the presence or absence of various predetermined elements used in the video and those corroborated by Spanish NSs to be pragmatically appropriate. Thus, utterances that were used in the video and additional responses that were deemed to be pragmatically appropriate by Spanish NSs were coded as correct.[34] Since coding for

[34] Throughout the pilot studies, learner responses were shared with many Spanish NSs from various countries. Items on which irreconcilable differences of opinion were found were discarded. For example, NSs commented that in some families the formal address form was used with parents while in others the informal was used, so an item regarding such a situation was discarded. Another example involved formal requests for assistance. Since NSs could not agree what constituted appropriate versus overly aggressive statements, an item involving such a situation was eliminated. Participants' responses were shared with three NSs for the current study. These three NSs were from Ecuador, Mexico, and Spain. They were all fellow graduate students and language teachers. Responses that

the presence or absence of a feature was more objective than categorizing responses, this methodology allowed for more rigorous tests for significance, such as the t-test, to be run on the data. This same method of coding responses for presence or absence of pragmatically appropriate features was applied to Part B of the written feedback, the oral role-play feedback, and the multiple-choice feedback. It allowed the researcher to give each participant a score based on the number of responses in which an appropriate pragmatic feature was present. The dependent variable to address our first research question was this score received by the learners for the percentage of responses that contained appropriate pragmatic features. The scores of the test and control groups were compared to determine the level of statistical significance.

3.613 The multiple-choice feedback instrument

The third and final feedback instrument for this study is seen in Appendix G. It was administered two weeks after the written and oral feedback instruments as an addendum to the final exam. There were two features of this exercise: (1) it elicited recognition rather than production of appropriate pragmatic features; and (2) it was given at the latest date possible to determine retention of knowledge. The exercise consisted of eight items. Item #1, an example of deixis used in the video, was employed because it had often been noted and commented on by informants throughout the piloting process. Items #2 and 4 elicited the use of appropriate forms of address, also seen on the other feedback instruments. Item #3 contained a telephone greeting such as that elicited in the first oral role play situation and in Item B2 of the written feedback instrument. Item #5 contained a request similar to that

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were acceptable to all three were considered appropriate. By the time of the current study, there remained little controversy regarding responses due to the earlier elimination process.

needed for Item #2 of the oral role-play instrument. Item #6 elicited knowledge of a speech act used only for leave-taking in English but that was used as both a greeting and leave-taking speech act in the Spanish-language video. Item #7 considered a compliment that drew the attention of many learners who viewed the video throughout the piloting process. Finally, Item #8, like Item B9 on the written feedback, elicited the learners' impressions of the concept of politeness in the two languages. This final item, like items B2, B5, B7, B9, B10, B11, B13, and B14 of the written feedback, elicits the learners' general pragmatic awareness rather than specific examples of appropriate pragmatic usage.

3.62 Additional items of the written feedback instrument

Part A and Item B15 of the written feedback instrument (Appendix E) were designed to examine the learners' reactions as well as to elicit other qualitative feedback. In order to answer the second research question, "How can interactive video viewing enhance pragmatic input?," subjects in both test and control groups were asked questions regarding their attitudes toward the usefulness of the *Destinos* video (see Appendix E, Items A1-A9 and A12-A13). Their subjective reactions pertaining to whether or not the video served to improve their Spanish communicative competence, how the video compared to other components of the curriculum in terms of pedagogical importance, and general attitudes toward the video component of the course, were solicited. The informants placed their responses to items A1-A7 on a Likert scale, with 1 representing the highest level of agreement and 5 representing the highest level of disagreement. For Item A8, they were asked to rank the components of the course in order of usefulness, while in Item A9 they ranked the usefulness of

the video in the language development process. Items A12 and A13 were open-ended questions that asked the learners how they believed the video could be made more useful and their opinions on how the video was used in their class.

The rationale for the questions in Part A of the written feedback instrument is rooted in our hypothesis that input enhancement activities that foment interactive video viewing can make this component of the course seem more relevant to the language-learning process.[35] If a significantly more positive attitude on the part of test-group participants can be documented, affect might serve as an intervening variable that could influence the performance of the test and control groups on the other feedback instruments. This phenomenon could occur because of the important pedagogical ramifications of having an explicit purpose for learning and of being provided with an advance organizer (Oxford, 1989). The input enhancement instruments were designed to perform these two functions. Also, there is the self-fulfilling prophesy phenomenon resulting from having a positive attitude toward an educational tool or experience (Horwitz, 1988).

To address the second research question, the influence of two possible intervening variables that could augment the conscious attention to form as encouraged by the input enhancement treatments was examined. It was not only hypothesized that interactive video viewing will result in a more positive affect on the part of the learner, but also that the learners in the test group will spend significantly more time on task, which in turn will influence performance on the other feedback

[35] Evidence for this hypothesis was gained from the piloting process. During the piloting process, second- and third-semester learners who had been exposed to the methods used in this current experiment by both test and control groups indicated a more positive attitude toward the experimental treatments used by the test group than toward the approach used by the control group. With these findings in mind, we wanted to determine if this anecdotal evidence from the piloting studies would be repeated and if it would rise to a statistically significant level.

instruments. Therefore, two questions concerning time on task are also included on the final feedback instrument (Appendix E, Items A10 and A11).

In Part A of the written feedback instrument, the test group participants were also asked about the learning process that they employed while viewing the videos and responding to the treatments (Appendix E, Item A14). This specific question was asked to determine if, once initiated, conscious attention to form was sustained throughout the viewing period or if it was employed only to address the task and then discarded. The intent of the pedagogical approach used in this study was to influence learners to transfer analytical viewing techniques to real-life situations in order to develop pragmatic competence. Therefore, the responses to this question might provide insight as to whether analytical strategies would be applied by learners to other environments beyond the experiment. In Part A of the written feedback, the test-group learners were also asked two questions about the relatively inductive and deductive treatment items (Appendix E, Items A16 and A17) to further evaluate their learning styles and attitudes concerning our experimental method.

The test group subjects were also questioned as to what extent they believed that the experimental treatments helped or hindered their overall comprehension of the plot (Appendix E, Item A15). This specific test group question was designed to address the third research question concerning the controversy surrounding alleged deleterious effects of attention to form on overall comprehension of content (VanPatten, 1989, 1990). Question B15 (Appendix E), which asked both test and control groups to recall the plot, was designed to elicit more information regarding attention to form as opposed to global comprehension and to compare feedback from both groups.

3.7 SUMMARY

For this study, the learners participated in nine out-of-class viewings of the *Destinos* video series. A control group was given plot-oriented quizzes in class the day following each viewing while a test group was provided with input enhancement treatments to address while viewing the video. At the end of the viewing period, three feedback instruments were administered to both test and control group participants to determine if the enhanced video viewing had an affect on the use and awareness of L2 pragmatics. These instruments included written, oral role-play, and multiple-choice tasks. Items were also incorporated into the written feedback section to determine if learner attitude and time on task differed significantly between test and control groups and might, therefore, be considered as intervening variables in the study. The effect of form-focused input enhancement on global comprehension was also considered in the learners' responses on the written feedback instrument.

After the data were collected and classified, the results of all these measures were tested for significance. The type of test for significance depended on the nature of the data. Since the data dealing with affect, for example, were qualitative in nature, chi squares were performed on each item to determine relative frequencies of responses. The frequencies that predominated between the test and control groups and any statistically significant difference between the responses of the two groups were then determined.

The data on the learners' awareness and use of pragmatic features of Spanish as well as some other factors, such as time on task, were more quantitative in nature. Therefore, the more rigorous t-test was applied to groups of these items in order to determine if there were statistical trends or significance. The t test compares means and standard deviations of the responses to one or many items rather than frequencies

of individual items. Some of the data are also presented in various other forms in order to provide explanations and analyses.

In the following chapter the data collected for this study are presented, and the data from the test group are compared with those from the control group. The results of the various tests for significance conducted on the data that were collected by the three feedback instruments are reviewed and analyzed.

Chapter Four: Results and Analysis of the Data

4.1 INTRODUCTION

If the results from this study are statistically significant in comparing test and control groups, we submit that input enhancement in tandem with L2 videos can be a beneficial way for learners to acquire L2 pragmatic competence and awareness. Results can also indicate that video programs can be beneficial for more than developing passive listening comprehension skills. Positive results may also imply that learners can be taught to view video actively so that L2 videos can be used to teach knowledge and skills overtly, such as those used in pragmatic awareness and use. If results are statistically significant, the line of inquiry concerning affect may indicate that L2 learners find the investment of time in watching video to be of greater value when input enhancement strategies are added to the video curriculum, perhaps because they believe that they are learning more of the L2. The results can also demonstrate that the attention to form, stimulated through this type of input enhancement instruments, does not detract from global content comprehension and may, in fact, increase overall comprehension. In short, the results may show that, if educators apply form-focused input enhancement activities to the video component of the L2 curriculum, learners may enjoy this component more and may learn more of the formal properties of the L2 without incurring detrimental effects. It may be

considered that the analytical skills utilized when learners complete form-focused input enhancement assignments while involved in the virtual reality of video can be transferred to real life situations when learners are confronted with them. The transfer of these analytical skills should accelerate the learners' acquisition of communicative competence in general and their pragmatic competence in particular.

With the above considerations in mind, some sample answers provided by the learners on the input enhancement treatments and their responses to the final feedback instruments are analyzed to determine if, how, and when this experimental method may be beneficial to L2 learners.

4.2 SAMPLE RESPONSES TO THE NINE TEST-GROUP TREATMENTS

In order to provide examples of the type of responses that were sought and provided on the treatments, and in order to show the type of feedback that the learners received, the following samples (Appendices H and I) are shown in this section. The first set of responses include some sample answers from the first of the nine treatments (Appendix D) in the two areas of sociolinguistic competence. Part A asked learners to provide examples of characters using either the formal or informal Spanish address form. Two typical responses were as follows (Appendix H):

Sample response A: "When Juan walked into the kitchen when Arturo and Pedro were talking, Raquel and Angela were talking on the phone. They were having a friendly conversation using the *tú* (informal) form."[36]

Sample response B: "When Raquel was calling Pedro, she was talking to his housekeeper (the woman in pink). Raquel said '. . . *y usted*?' (formal form) when responding to the housekeeper. I think she said this, because the housekeeper was older. She said it to be respectful."

Via minimal feedback provided by the researcher, the first respondent (A) was asked to provide an exact quote and to explain why he thought the two characters used the informal address form on future assignments. Since the second respondent (B) supplied context, an exact quote, and an explanation, her instructor was asked to allow her to read her example to the class during the few minutes of class time allotted for review of the input enhancement assignments. This minimal time was allowed only so that learners who had points deducted would understand the reason behind it. The exercise was intended to let the learners know how to perform the assignments, not to teach appropriate L2 pragmatics overtly in the classroom.

Part B on the first treatment solicited examples of characters using various speech acts and asked if they were similar or different from what a native speaker of the participants' native language or dialect would say. The following are two typical responses:

[36] All responses are written as provided by the participants, regardless of any errors.

Sample answer C: "When Pati was being told that her play was controversial and she should change it, she rebuked this. When she rebuked this fact, she became very fidgety—for example, she moved her hands a lot. I think that this is very much alike in English. I think we also move our hands for emphasis when we disagree."

Sample answer D1 and D2: (D1) "When they answer the phone, they say '*bueno*' (good) instead of 'hello.' (D2) When they [say] '*me gustaría*' instead of just saying '*me gusta.*'"

The learner who provided response C was asked to provide actual quotes in the future. Although body language conveys a great deal of communicative information, pragmatic competence is concerned with linguistic realizations of communication. The instructor of respondent D was asked to have him read his response to the class because it provided a contextualized example of pragmatic differences between English and Spanish for the speech act of greeting in telephone conversations (D1). This respondent also provided example D2, which involves a request that provides evidence of the close relationship between pragmatics and grammar. In this example, the respondent noted the use of the conditional rather than the simple present indicative form of the verb in Spanish requests.

As previously mentioned, in order to vary instructional strategy and also to encourage different types of information processing, the treatments given to the learners solicited both relatively deductive and inductive processing in responding to the different areas addressed in the *Destinos* video quizzes. Instead of being asked to glean a specific quote from the whole episodes on their own (relatively inductive

item), on the fourth worksheet, participants were given a specific quote and asked to locate and analyze it (relatively deductive item). Regarding this relatively deductive item in the sociolinguistic section on the fourth treatment, the following are some sample responses that illustrate what the researcher was expecting on the treatments (Appendix I):

Question 3a ("In Episode 24, Raquel takes a strong dislike to a character she has recently met. What does this character say that makes her dislike him?"):

Sample answer E: "Jorge says to Raquel '*Me puedes tutear. ¿El tuteo es más íntimo, no?*' (You can use the informal address form with me. It is more intimate, don't you think?) In English, we cannot say this, because we only use the word 'you.'"

Another sample response that reflected an understanding of an important use of the Spanish second person address system is seen in answer G. This respondent also finds other utterances that annoy the female character, which many other learners noted.

Sample answer G: "As Raquel and Jorge were coming out of the auditorium, Raquel asked Jorge a question using the formal '*usted*.' In his reply, Jorge addressed her in the '*tú*' form, signaling a change in the dynamics of their relationship. He then said '*¿Estás casada*?' (Are you married?). This is when Raquel becomes turned off by him, and by the time he finished telling her that by staying at the university he had access to a lot of "opportunities," she knew that she didn't need to know anymore about him."

Question 3c dealt with a suggestion. ("In Episode 24, Raquel makes a suggestion to Angela on a rather touchy subject. How exactly does she phrase her suggestion? Is this similar to or different from the way you would make such a suggestion in English?") The respondent in Sample F provided the response that the researcher was seeking:

Sample answer F: "Raquel says to Angela '*¿No crees que es mejor que él mismo compre el cine?*' (Don't you think it is better that HE buys the theater with his own money?) I think if I were to make a suggestion it would be similar to this, if I were talking in English."

Another typical response was that seen in Sample answer H:

Sample answer H: "In response to Angela's plan to give Jorge the money to start his theatrical company, Raquel asked Angela if she thought it would be better if Jorge bought the theater by himself. The way that Angela [Raquel] posed the question seems similar to the way that sort of situation would be handled in English."

The respondent in Sample answer H noted the same suggestion; however, this respondent did not supply the actual quote. Whether or not the negative element in the suggestion was noted by her is unknown. For this reason, strong emphasis was placed on providing actual quotes on the treatments.

In summation, these particular sample responses, seen in this section and in Appendices H and I, were chosen for various reasons. The first of these reasons is to demonstrate the minimal feedback that was provided to the learners. The second reason is to illustrate the responses that the researcher was seeking. Another reason is

to show typical responses furnished by the participants in the study. Although each treatment was worth only five points out of the total 1,000 points included in the semester grade, many learners spent much time and effort on the treatments. While some respondents provided shorter, less sophisticated answers than those in the above samples, others provided long, involved answers, including arrows to the back of the page with more information. The sample answers included in this chapter were "typical" in terms of length and depth of analysis. From the responses provided by the informants, it appears that once learners become aware of the concept of pragmatics, most all are able to notice various pragmatic manifestations. Many learners also exhibited an enthusiasm for the topic as seen by long, detailed responses. This observation coincides with findings in the literature concerning learners' interest in learning about cultural aspects of the L2 and its speakers (Herron, Dubreil, Cole, & Corrie, 2000).

4.3 THE DATA FROM THE FEEDBACK INSTRUMENTS

To determine whether our method of input enhancement was beneficial to the learners' L2 pragmatic development, three feedback instruments were presented to the learners in both the test and control groups after the nine viewings and treatments were completed. This procedure was done in order to gauge if and how their pragmatic awareness and use was affected by the different treatments that the two groups received throughout the semester. The three feedback instruments given to both groups at the end of the semester included a two-part written feedback form that

contained several lines of inquiry, an oral role-play instrument, and a multiple-choice instrument (see Appendices E, F, and G). The overall results from these three instruments are displayed in Table 1 and are discussed throughout this chapter.

Table 1: Results from the three feedback instruments

	Test group*	Control group*	T>C ratio**	chi square*** p< or = .05	t test*** p< or = .05
Written feedback (Part B)	55%	45%	13 out of 15	Significance or trend on 7/15 items	0.002
Oral feedback	56%	48%	7 out of 9; one tie	Significance on 1 item.	0.15
Multiple choice feedback	59.40%	59.30%	4 out of 8	Trend on 1/8 items	0.97
Pragmatic awareness	51%	48%	9 out of 11	N/A	0.016
Pragmatic use/production	57%	51%	17 out of 23; one tie	N/A	0.046
Affect			9 out of 11	Signif. or trend on 5/11 items	N/A
Time on task-missed episodes	14%	24%	N/A	0.135	0.03
Time on task-minutes	102.5	66.8	N/A	0.030	0.00001
Plot items recalled	9.1	7.3	N/A	0.689	0.08

*Averages for responses to all areas of inquiry/total percent of items addressed appropriately in the first five areas of inquiry

**Number of items on which the test group outperformed the control group. For example, on the written feedback, the test group scored higher than the control group on 13 out of a total of 15 items.

***Statistical significance p< or = .05; Statistical trend p>.05 or = .10

Though there is some overlap, the data from the first five rows specifically address the first research question for this study, the data from rows 6 through 8 specifically address the second question, and the data from the last row address the third question. The data are reviewed in this order rather than in the order in which they were solicited on the feedback treatments. Thus, discussion begins with the overall pragmatic feedback displayed in rows 4 and 5 and then reviews the individual items included in the three tasks: Part B of the written feedback instrument, the oral, and multiple-choice feedback, seen in rows 1 through 3. Finally, the data from Part A of the written feedback, displayed in rows 6 through 9, are analyzed.

4.31 General pragmatic awareness versus use of specific pragmatic features

As Table 1 indicates, the entire corpus of data concerning pragmatics was analyzed in two distinct ways. First, since this study mainly concerns the learners' overall awareness and use of L2 pragmatic forms following input enhancement, an analysis was done taking all items of the three feedback tasks and categorizing each item as showing either general awareness of L2 pragmatic differences or the use of a specific pragmatic form. The data were also analyzed according to task. For this second analysis, the data from each of the three feedback instruments were analyzed separately. Analyzing the data from the perspective of linguistic function provided more statistically significant results than analyzing the data on the basis of communicative task. As Table 1 indicates, statistical significance was found for both categories ($p = .016$ for general awareness and $p = .046$ for pragmatic use/production).

These results can be attributed to the fact that the test group performed significantly better on the written section and much better than the control group (though not significantly so) on the oral section. The t-test took into consideration the means and standard deviations for responses to all items in each category as a whole. When these t- test measures were performed, despite the participants' nearly equal performance on the multiple-choice task, the test group's performance rose to a statistically significant level in terms of both general awareness of L2 pragmatic differences and overall use of specific pragmatic forms.

General pragmatic awareness as well as actual use of specific forms was analyzed because a general awareness that pragmatic differences exist between languages is important to the future performance of language learners. As explained in previous chapters, children are taught the pragmatics of their L1 at an early age by their caretakers (Brown & Hanlon, 1970; Bruner, 1981; Hadley, 1993; Schmidt, 1993a). During this acculturation process, however, children are not taught that certain utterances are appropriate in a specific language community, but rather that these specific utterances are **the** polite and correct utterances expected in a given social situation. This childhood acculturation process leads people to believe that sociolinguistic conventions are universal (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1996). Because of this belief, L2 learners have a tendency to transfer their L1 pragmatics to the L2 (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989a). When the transfer is based on incorrect assumptions, intercultural problems can arise. This L1 pragmatics learning phenomenon explains why one tends to be more offended by foreigners' pragmatic

errors than by their grammatical errors (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985; Terrell, 1987). One can tolerate grammatical errors more than pragmatic errors. So, when learners become aware that pragmatic differences between languages do in fact exist, this knowledge changes their a priori assumption that such differences do not exist. Therefore, an awareness that pragmatics are not universal can change the way L2 speakers view others and are viewed by them and can lead to more positive intercultural interactions.

Another reason that it is important to heighten L2 learners' general awareness that pragmatic differences exist in the L2 rather than to rely only on teaching the use of specific features is that all pragmatic features of an L2 cannot be learned in the classroom because there are too many of them. Also, there are not only pragmatic differences between languages, but there are also differences between same language groups or subcultures based on such factors as age, gender, socioeconomic status, region, and ethnicity. So, it is important that the L2 learner be aware and open to pragmatic differences that can be encountered when interacting with L2 speakers.

In the three feedback instruments, eleven out of a total of thirty-five individual items solicited general pragmatic awareness while the remaining twenty-four solicited the use of specific L2 pragmatic forms. The items that were classified as involving pragmatic awareness were Items A7, A9, B2, B5, B7, B9, B10, B11, B13, and B14 of the written feedback, as well as Item #8 of the multiple-choice feedback. The items classified as involving the use of specific pragmatic forms in the L2 were Items B1, B3, B4a, B4b, B6, B8, and B12 of the written feedback, all 10 items of the oral

feedback, and Items #1 through 7 of the multiple-choice feedback. Two items from Part A of the written feedback (Appendix E) were added to the analysis involving pragmatic awareness and use. Item A7 ("*Destinos* taught me a lot about what to say in different situations in Spanish-speaking countries. For example, it taught me when to use the *tú* or *usted* form, how to answer the phone in Spanish, etc.") and Item A9 ("*Destinos* is the most useful for learning: rank Grammar, Listening Comprehension, to learn what speakers say in different situations, Culture, Pronunciation") both gauged to what extent the learners were aware that such a concept as pragmatics existed and whether it was relevant to L2 learning. For Item A7, 45% of the test group and 16% of the control group (p= .045) expressed agreement (1 or 2 on the Likert scale) indicating an awareness of pragmatic issues involved in L2 learning. For Item A9, the test group as a whole was more aware that watching Spanish NSs interact could be useful for learning L2 pragmatics, but the difference (p= .303) was not significant.

As the rows labeled "Pragmatic awareness" and "Pragmatic use/production" on Table 1 indicate, the test group demonstrated a statistically significant performance over the control group in both areas. In pragmatic awareness, the test group outperformed the control group on nine out of a total of eleven items. This performance was reflected by statistical significance (p= .016) on the t-test for overall awareness of pragmatic differences between the two languages when relevant items on all three feedback instruments were considered. On all items of the three feedback tasks concerning the use of specific pragmatic features of Spanish, the test group also

showed statistically significant performance and outperformed the control group on seventeen of twenty-three items while performing equally well on one item in this category. The t-test p value for appropriate production of specific items was also significant (.046). The difference in the two significant p values may indicate that, while the test group was more aware of the concept of L2 pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatic differences, their actual ability to use appropriate specific forms was not as developed.

Since the data for this section of the study were divided into two groups and two t-tests were done on this corpus of data, a Bonferroni Adjustment was performed to determine if statistical significance would still be found if one were to adjust for the fact that two t-tests were performed on the same set of data. Thus, the minimum p value for statistical significance, .05, was divided by the number of t-tests done on the data, 2. The resulting quotient was .025. When applying this conservative adjustment to the data, the results for those data representing pragmatic awareness are still significant because p= .016 is less than .025.

In the following sections, the data are analyzed on the basis of communicative task. Individual items on each task are also reviewed in order to ascertain any patterns concerning specific speech acts.

4.32 The written feedback, Part B

Part B of the written feedback instrument dealt with learners' awareness and use of appropriate pragmatic features of the Spanish language (Appendix E). It was one of the instruments that addressed the first research question (What is the role of

conscious awareness in the learning of L2 pragmatic features?) The instructions for this section stated "You may use the way the characters in *Destinos* talked to each other to help you answer." There were a total of fifteen items on this instrument. The first two columns on Table 1 show that, in terms of overall averages, the test group responded correctly 55% of the time while the control group scored an average of 45% on Part B of the written feedback instrument. As the row labeled "Written feedback (Part B)" and the column labeled "T>C ratio" on Table 1 indicates, the test group responded more appropriately than the control group on thirteen of the fifteen items, while the control group responded more appropriately on only two of these items. The t-test for statistical significance, which compared the means and standard deviations of the two group's total responses, showed that the test group's overall superior performance on the written feedback section was significant ($p = .002$).

Since the goal of this study was to develop a strategy to stimulate global, general pragmatic competence and awareness, the results of the t-tests on the first five rows of Table 1 are the most important consideration. Chi square tests were also performed on each individual item of the feedback data, however, to determine if there was statistical significance concerning the frequencies of the two groups' responses on each of the items and to find any patterns concerning specific speech acts. Of the fifteen items included in Part B of the written feedback instrument, statistical significance was found for six items. Of these six items, the test group outperformed the control group on five items, which were Items B3, 6, 7, 9, and 12.

The control group did significantly better on Item B5. A statistical trend (a chi square p value of over .05 but not over .10) was found in favor of the test group on Item B4a.

The data from each of the fifteen items on Part B of the written feedback section are displayed in Figure 4.1, Table 2, and Table 3. In Figure 4.1, the percentages of appropriate responses from the two groups on each item are compared. Table 2 shows the chi square p values derived from comparing the frequencies of appropriate responses from the two groups for statistical significance.

Figure 4.1: Results for the individual items on Part B of the written feedback

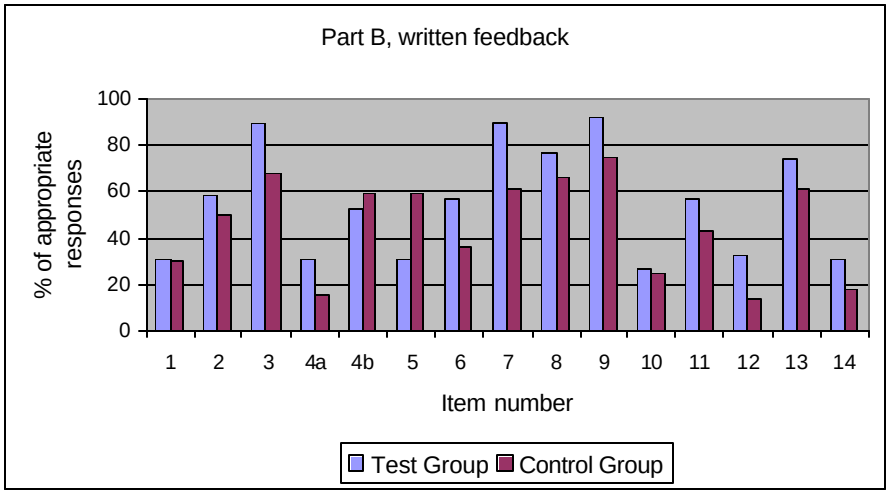

Table 2: Chi square results for the individual items on Part B of the written feedback

Item number	1	2	3	4a	4b	5	6	7
p value	0.903	0.411	0.009*	0.082*	0.549	0.004*	0.041*	0.000*
Item number	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	
p value	0.190	0.016*	0.761	0.178	0.028*	0.160	0.147	

*Statistical significance-p< or = .05; Statistical trend-p >.05 - .10

In Table 3, the individual items of the written feedback are ranked in order of the test group's performance on them relative to the control group's performance. Table 3 also includes the speech act solicited for each item, whether or not the item was frequent in the input, whether the use of a specific pragmatic feature or general pragmatic awareness was tested, which group performed better on each item, the chi square measure, and whether statistical significance was found on a particular item.

Table 3: Rankings for the individual items on Part B of the written feedback

Rank-ing	Item #	Speech act	Classifi-cation	Fre-quent	Perfor-mance	significance	chi square
1st	7	Interjection	awareness	yes	T>C*	significance	0.000
2nd	3	2nd person address	use	yes	T>C	significance	0.009
3rd	9	general manners	awareness	yes	T>C	significance	0.016
4th	12	Downgraders	use	yes	T>C	significance	0.028
5th	6	Introductions	use	yes	T>C	significance	0.041
6th	4a	Suggestion	use	no	T>C	trend	0.082
7th	14	Insult	awareness	no	T>C	none	0.147
8th	13	dialect differences	awareness	yes	T>C	none	0.160
9th	11	Requests	awareness	yes	T>C	none	0.178
10th	8	2nd person address	use	yes	T>C	none	0.190
11th	2	phone etiquette	awareness	yes	T>C	none	0.411
12th	10	consoling	awareness	yes	T>C	none	0.781
13th	1	2nd person address	use	no	T>C	none	0.903
14th	4b	suggestion	use	no	C>T**	none	0.549
15th	5	request	awareness	no	C>T	significance	0.004

*item on which the test group outperformed the control group
**item on which the control group outperformed the test group

To review the data displayed in this section, items on which the control group outperformed the test group are considered first, followed by items for which statistical significance and statistical trends were found and, finally, other items on which the test group outperformed the control group.

4.321 Items on which the control group outperformed the test group

As Figure 4.1 indicates, the control group's responses to two of the fifteen items, Items 4b and 5 (Appendix E), were more pragmatically appropriate than those of the test group. Item 4b inquired whether a direct translation of a Spanish suggestion would be appropriate in English. The suggestion was "*¿No será un error?*" 'Couldn't there be a mistake?' or 'Isn't it a mistake?' As previously mentioned, while English suggestions tend to employ an affirmative structure (e.g., "Could there be a mistake?"), Spanish suggestions tend to employ a negative structure. The English equivalent of the Spanish suggestion formula sounds somewhat challenging or strong as in a rebuke while the Spanish equivalent of the English affirmative suggestion structure is heard as a statement of fact or yes/no question, rather than as a suggestion to native Spanish speakers. In Item 4b the implied suggestion was that the receptionist at a hospital should recheck her records. There is a possible complicating factor with this item. Since the suggestion in Item 4 employs the Spanish future tense verb form expressing conjecture ("*¿No será un error?*" 'Couldn't there be a mistake?' or 'Isn't it a mistake?'), there could have been some confusion on the part of the learners who might have translated the suggestion with a straightforward future connotation. A future tense translation would make a direct English translation of the suggestion in Item 4b inappropriate for two reasons: (1) the use of the future tense (grammatical difference for the learners); as well as (2) the existence of a negative element (pragmatic difference). This situation, which renders the utterance problematic in English for both pragmatic and grammatical reasons, may explain the insignificant, high p value for this item. Although 59% of

the control group and only 53% of the test group realized that a direct translation was not appropriate in English, this difference in the two groups' responses was not statistically significant (chi square p = .549). On the other suggestion in the data, Item 4a of the written feedback, the test group performed better than the control group and, in fact, a statistical trend was found. Therefore, no conclusions concerning the suggestion speech act can be drawn. As Table 3 indicates, this and two other items on which the test group performed the most poorly were not frequent in the input. The frequency hypothesis (Larsen-Freeman, 1976a, 1976b; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) may shed some light on the findings of the written feedback; however, as the items ranked in 6th and 7th place on Table 3 indicate, the picture is mixed. The findings of other researchers (Lightbown, 1985; Long & Sato, 1983) also found a mixed picture concerning the frequency issue.

On the other item in which the control group outperformed the test group, statistical significance was found (p =.004). Item 5 involved requesting behaviors in Spanish and English as they are influenced by different cultural/family relationships. When a young adult female character in the video wanted to travel to meet her grandparents, she asked for permission from her grandmother, aunts, and uncles. In American culture, family members would not usually have so much power over such actions of an adult female. While 59% of the control group noticed the cultural differences reflected in the character's request, only 31% of the test group did so. The p value of the chi square for this difference was .004, which is significant based on the criteria (alpha = .05) for this study. Although this particular item involved a request, no conclusions can be drawn involving this speech act. Requests are examined throughout the three feedback instruments, written, oral, and multiple choice, and the performance rankings for the test group, such as those in Table 3, are

mixed. One observation is that no significance or trend was found with any other item involving a request. All of the other requesting behaviors tested, which are examined in following sections, are more frequent in the input, and on these the test group performed better than on Item 5, but not significantly so.

In summation, it is difficult to explain why the control group outperformed the test group on these two specific items. A definite reason as to why the presence or absence of input enhancement would make a difference on these particular items as opposed to others cannot be formulated. As seen in the sample answers provided in section 4.2, Item 4b was solicited and noted by respondents on the fourth experimental treatment. One possible speculation could be drawn from the frequency hypothesis (Larsen-Freeman, 1976a, 1976b; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) because both of these two items appeared only once in the input. Perhaps input enhancement is more successful when input is more frequent. Another interpretation of the data in this section, especially since significance in favor of the control group was found for only one item (p=.004), may be that it simply reflects a statistical anomaly. When a test is repeatedly performed on the same corpus of data, it is not surprising to find significance for **any** assumption on a small number of items. So, in conclusion, while the findings for these two items are perplexing, they may not be very important in the larger sense because they do not suggest a pattern. The fact that the test group outperformed the control group on thirteen of the fifteen items and that significance was found on many of these items indicates some support for the hypothesis that the form of input enhancement employed in the current study is beneficial to L2 learners. The t-test result for all fifteen items of the written feedback collectively, a statistically significant p value of .002, provides stronger support for our hypothesis.

4.322 Items on which statistical significance was found

As Table 2 indicates, statistical significance was found in the individual chi squares for Items 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, and 12 in Part B of the written feedback. On five of these six items the test group outperformed the control group. Item B3 asked the informants to provide three examples in which the informal "*tú*" form and three in which the formal "*usted*" form would be used. Responses were coded "correct" if all six responses were appropriate and "incorrect" if any of the responses provided would not be appropriate. Eighty-nine percent of the test group provided six appropriate situations while only 68% of the control group did so ($p = .009$). All nine treatments asked the participants to find examples of second person address forms, and the data suggest that input enhancement may have been effective in this area in particular. Although the rankings of the test group's performance relative to the control group for second person address on all three feedback instruments are mixed, and in some instances the control group even outperformed the test group, every instance of statistical significance with second person address is in favor of the test group. Moreover, on all three feedback instruments, significance was found concerning forms of second person address in favor of the test group. Given that this concept was solicited in all treatments and was frequent in the input, some support may be inferred for Larsen-Freeman's (1976a, 1976b; Larsen & Long, 1991) frequency hypothesis.

Statistical significance ($p = .041$) was found in favor of the test group on Item B6. This item solicited the social convention for introducing people to each other in

Spanish. All participants were exposed to several examples of this social convention when viewing the video. Appropriate responses, as determined by the video and Spanish NSs, included phrases such as *"Le/te presento…,"* 'I present to you…,' *"Este(a) es…,"* 'This is…,' and *"Mucho gusto,"* 'Pleased to meet you.' For this item, 57% of the test group provided pragmatically appropriate responses while only 36% of the control group appear to have acquired the appropriate Spanish convention for making introductions despite their exposure to the same video series. As seen later, the test group also performed well on the two items that solicited the speech act of introductions on the oral feedback instrument (2^{nd} and 3^{rd} place in the rankings), but neither item rose to the level of statistical significance ($p = .233$ and .287). This speech act was frequent in the input, but never specifically solicited in the experimental treatments.

Item B7 asked respondents to note any discourse markers or "connectors" used in the discourse of Spanish speakers that are equivalent to the use of such English expressions as "hmm," "well," or "anyway." Such expressions, especially the use of *"bueno"* 'good' by the protagonist, were plentiful in the video. They were noted frequently on the test group participants' nine treatments throughout the video-viewing period of this experiment. On this item of the written feedback instrument, over 90% of the test group respondents provided an appropriate example while only 61% of the control group provided an appropriate example, if any, of this pragmatic feature ($p = .000$). Since chi square measures were done on fifteen items in this section, it is difficult to make claims about any one individual item. There are

statistical adjustments that indicate that the results of Item 7 are an exception to this rule, however. When employing the conservative Bonferroni Adjustment to compensate for the fact that many chi square measures were performed on the same data, the difference between the two groups' responses is still significant. The Bonferroni Adjustment for this section, which is the maximum p value for statistical significance (.05) divided by the number of items in the corpus (fifteen in this case) results in a quotient of .003. Since the p value for Item 7 is less than .003, the results of this item are significant even when adjusting for the possibility of a Type 1 error due to many chi square measures performed on the same data. Of all the speech acts covered by the feedback instruments, this item is one on which the test group performed the best relative to the control group. This result surprised the researcher because of anecdotal personal experience with the *Destinos* video series in the Spanish L2 classroom. It is common for learners to mimic the protagonist's use of the interjection "*bueno*" when they parody the video. It was thought, therefore, that learners in both groups would offer this example. The results suggest that perhaps the input enhancement made the test group more aware of this interjection on a conscious level as shown on the written feedback instrument, which tested the learners' L2 production when given time to reflect. Regrettably, a similar item was not included on the multiple choice feedback instrument, which tests recognition.

Item B9 concerned the general concept of pragmatic awareness rather than the use of a specific pragmatic element. It was an open-ended item that asked the participants to compare the concept of politeness or manners in "typical" Spanish-

and American English-speaking cultures. While 92% of test group learners responded appropriately to Item B9, only 75% of those in the control group did so ($p = .016$). This and other similar items examined an understanding that languages are not a one-to-one translation of a common world view. Therefore, even such responses as "Spanish speakers/ English speakers are more polite" were coded as "correct," because they reflected an awareness of pragmatic differences between languages. The responses that were coded as "incorrect" for such items as B9 were those that reflected a view that pragmatics were universal and that pragmatic differences did not exist between the two languages. For example, a response such as "Manners are the same everywhere" was coded as "incorrect." Also, the lack of a response was coded as "incorrect" because it was determined that this choice indicated a lack of understanding of the concept of pragmatic differences between languages. An interesting observation was that there were many more instances of items left blank by control group than by test group respondents in Part B of the written feedback. Our hypothesis to explain this phenomenon is that, since the control group had no experience with the nine input enhancement treatments, they had no experience with the line of inquiry solicited on the feedback items and often preferred to leave items blank rather than to reflect on an unfamiliar concept. It is further hypothesized that this inability or unwillingness to respond to items dealing with pragmatics reflects a lesser degree of pragmatic awareness on the part of the control group.

Item B12 concerned the more common use of downgraders, such as "please," in connection with requests in American English, which can be attributed partly to a stronger sense of negative face in American culture and to a stronger sense of positive face in Spanish-speaking cultures (Brown & Levinson, 1987; LePair, 1996; Mir, 1992; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985). Using the video and personal experience as a guide, 32% of the test group informants and 14% of those in the control group circled 'ENGLISH' rather than 'SPANISH' or 'DON'T KNOW' as the language in which more downgraders are used ($p = .028$). This p value implies that there is less than a 3% chance that the difference in the responses of these two groups is coincidental. Therefore, it appears that enhanced exposure to the video may have led the test group learners to note that downgraders are not as frequently employed by Spanish speakers.

While statistical significance was found in connection with the aforementioned six items, a statistical trend was found on one of the fifteen items in Part B of the written feedback. Item B4a concerned the suggestion "*¿No será un error*?" 'Couldn't there be a mistake?' Although the control group performed better on Item B4b ($p = .549$), which asked respondents if a translation of this question would be pragmatically appropriate in English, a statistical trend in favor of the test group ($p = .082$) was found for Item B4a, which asked if this suggestion was polite in Spanish.

The juxtaposition of the responses to Items 4a and 4b is interesting. One explanation is that the test group was statistically more certain on the appropriateness

of the suggestion in Spanish than was the control group (p = .082 on 4a), but that neither group was sure of the English translation of the same question (p = .549 on 4b). On the other hand, as previously mentioned, since the suggestion in Item 4 employs the Spanish future tense verb form expressing conjecture, there could have been some confusion on the part of the learners who could have translated the suggestion with a straightforward future connotation.

In conclusion, it is difficult to speculate on why the test group performed statistically better on the particular items in this section. The only explanation arising from the data that appears to have any promise is that these were items that tended to appear more frequently in the video series. For example, the second person address forms, interjections, introductions and requests (with or without downgraders) occurred more frequently in the story line than did the specific suggestion and request on which the control group performed better. The data presented in Table 3 and in future sections, however, offer a more complex picture that weakens any such claims. Therefore, no specific claims regarding frequency in the input can be made. Further complications arise due to the fact that some of these items are more frequently presented in textbooks and in classrooms than others. Since the current study did not control for such input, further caution is exercised regarding claims concerning frequency in the input. The data from this study do not indicate that any particular type of speech act was made more accessible to the L2 learner as the result of input enhancement. The written feedback results allow for stronger claims concerning holistic pragmatic use and awareness, as reflected in the t-test on Table 1, than

concerning the individual speech acts, seen in Table 3, given that no definite patterns emerged from the chi square tests.[37]

4.323 Other items on which the test group outperformed the control group

While the test group performed better than the control group on the remaining items, no statistical significance was found in the chi-square measures of these items in Part B of the written feedback instrument. They will be examined here, however, because of possible relevance to patterns in the oral and multiple-choice data.

Item B1 involved a Spanish expression used by a character in the video that reflects the system of address used in Spanish. The English equivalent might be for a person to ask that someone call them by their first name rather than "Mr. X." Item B2 addressed a general awareness of the pragmatics of phone conversations, such as greetings and leave-taking. Item B8 also considered an aspect of the Spanish address system. Items B10 and B11, like Item B9, involved a general awareness of pragmatic differences between English and Spanish rather than specific items. These latter two items included similarities and differences involving consoling and requesting behaviors, respectively. Item B13 considered differences involving intralinguistic

[37] It is important that the t-test conducted on all fifteen items of Part B of the written feedback together showed statistical significance ($p = .002$). The t-test, used exclusively for quantitative data, is a more powerful test of statistical significance because it has stricter requirements, considers more than frequencies and, in this case, was run on a larger corpus of data. When any test is run on the same data several times its power is decreased, and there is an increased possibility of a Type 1 error, which is finding significance where none really exists. Therefore, while these chi square findings allow for more in-depth discussion of individual items and, when taken together, create a more complete picture

pragmatics used in the video and Item B14 solicited examples of ethnic slurs used by characters in the video. Many of these items were only heard once in the video, which may explain a lack of statistical significance, but phone conversations and requests were heard and commented on often, so explaining these findings in terms of frequency of input is problematic.

Although the test group outperformed the control group on all of the items mentioned in this section, and the p values of some of these items were almost significant, there is too strong a possibility that the test group's better performance on these items is attributable to coincidence to make any claims. What is noteworthy is that this group of items represents various speech acts. Some of these speech acts, such as requests and those involving telephone etiquette, were tested on other feedback instruments with varying results in the rankings, but statistical significance was never found for these particular areas. Although statistical significance was found with examples of the 2nd person address system on all three feedback instruments, there were two examples in this section on which the test group performed better than the control group, but not at a significant level. The data from this section also weaken evidence for the frequency hypothesis because several of the items in this section were frequent in the input, but the results did not rise to a significant level.

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of the data, one should be cautioned against placing too much importance on isolated pieces of data, especially since no strong patterns emerged from the chi square tests.

4.324 Conclusions on Part B of the written feedback

The results from this part of the feedback were encouraging because they indicate that the type of input enhancement activities used for this study and the type of video viewing they motivated seem to have a positive influence on the L2 learners' general, overall awareness and use of pragmatics, although no pattern emerged for particular types of items.

The p value of the t-test done on this section of the data (.002) was well within the limits of statistical significance. Even when applying the Bonferroni Adjustment, the t-test for the written data is still significant.[38] The fact that the test group outperformed the control group on thirteen out of fifteen items and that their performance rose to a statistically significant level for over one-third of these items on individual chi square measures lends some additional support to our claim that the experimental treatments seem to have facilitated the awareness and use of appropriate pragmatics by the L2 learners, at least when they had time to reflect and write their responses. The results for the more spontaneous and natural oral role-play are now examined and compared with the findings from the written feedback.

4.33 The oral feedback

As mentioned previously, while the written feedback instrument tested the learners' ability to produce pragmatically appropriate forms when given time to think,

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[38] Since three tasks were performed by the participants in order to evaluate their pragmatic use and awareness (written, oral, and multiple choice), the Bonferroni Adjustment was obtained by dividing the maximum p value for significance (.05) by the number of t-tests (3) performed on this corpus of data. The quotient is .017. Since the p value for the written section of the feedback is less than .017, the results of this section of the feedback are still significant even when applying the conservative Bonferroni Adjustment to compensate for a possible Type 1 error. Therefore, the possibility that a

the oral feedback increased the communicative demands placed on the learners, especially because they had to interact with a partner. Since they had to understand and be understood as well by their partner, focus on meaning had more relative importance in the oral task. Because of these two factors of time to focus on form and communicative pressure, the test group's performance was expected to be less pragmatically appropriate on the oral than in the written section (Salaberry & López-Ortega, 1998). Furthermore, the oral role-play allowed for the most communicative control on the part of the participants because they could simply avoid features that were difficult or unstable at their level of L2 production (Salaberry & López-Ortega, 1998). This factor means that the learners' output may not reflect newer, more recently learned knowledge but rather unassimilated knowledge. This notion provides a third reason to expect that the test group's oral performance may not be as pragmatically appropriate as their written performance. The data seen on Table 1 confirm this hypothesis. While the t-test for the written section showed statistical significance ($p = .002$), results for the oral section ($p = .15$) were slightly outside of the range needed to claim a statistical trend. Despite this measure, however, as Table 1 indicates, the test group used slightly more pragmatically appropriate forms overall than the control group on the oral feedback instrument (a score of 56% for the test group as opposed to 48% for the control group). The individual elements of this instrument are now examined to determine if any patterns emerge.

Type 1 error (finding significance where none exists) has been made in evaluating the results of this section is very low.

A total of 10 items were addressed during the oral role- plays (see Appendix F). As Figure 4.2 illustrates, the test group responded more appropriately on 7 items (#1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, and 9), while the control group gave more pragmatically appropriate responses on two items (#6 and 10). The two groups performed equally on Item #4. Table 4 shows that, when chi square measures were run on the ten individual items in the oral section, statistical significance was found on only one item (Item #9) on which the test group outperformed the control group (p= .035). This item is examined in a later section (4.333).

Figure 4.2: Results for the individual items on the oral feedback

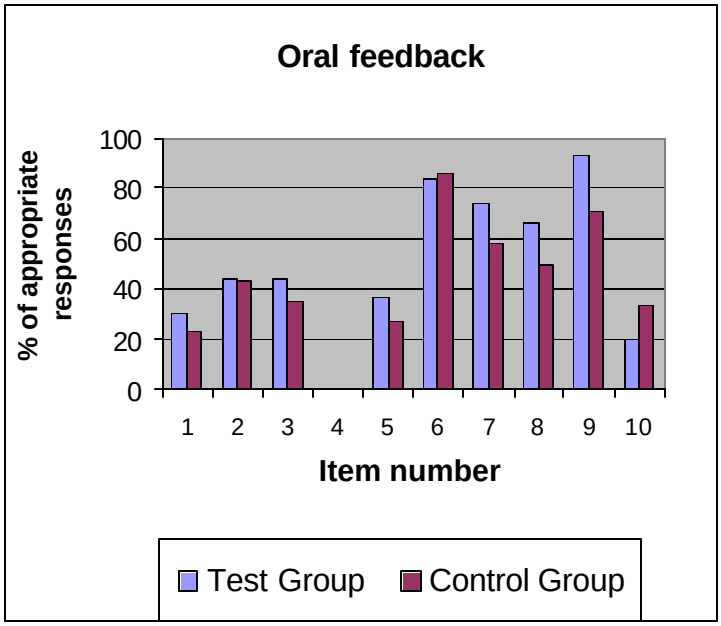

Table 4: Chi square results for the individual items on the oral feedback

Item number	1	2	3	4	5
p value	0.537	1.000	0.483	N/A	0.550
Item number	6	7	8	9	10
p value	0.815	0.233	0.287	0.035*	0.426

*Statistical significance-p<or=.05; Statistical trend-p >.05 <or=.10

In Table 5, the individual items are ranked according to the test group's performance. Table 5 also includes the speech act solicited for each item, whether the item was frequent in the input, whether the item tested the use of a specific pragmatic feature or general pragmatic awareness, which group performed better on each item, the chi square measure, and whether statistical significance was found.

Table 5: Rankings for the individual items on the oral feedback

Rank-ing	Item #	Speech act	Classifi-cation	Fre-quent	Perfor-mance	significance	chi square
1st	9	2nd person address	use	yes	T>C	significance	0.035
2nd	7	Introduction	use	yes	T>C	None	0.233
3rd	8	Introduction	use	yes	T>C	none	0.287
4th	3	Request	use	yes	T>C	none	0.483
5th	1	Phone etiquette	use	yes	T>C	none	0.537
6th	5	Request	use	yes	T>C	none	0.550
7th	2	Phone etiquette	use	yes	T>C	none	1.000
8th	4	Phone etiquette	use	yes	T=C	none	N/A
9th	6	Request	use	yes	C>T	none	0.815
10th	10	2nd person address	use	yes	C>T	none	0.426

Though significance was found for only one item on the oral section, all individual items in this section are reviewed in order to present a fuller picture of the data and because some of the data are compared and used for analysis in other sections.

4.331 Items on which the control group outperformed the test group

Of the ten items in the oral section, Figure 4.2 and Table 5 indicate that the control group outperformed the test group on two items. The first of these two items was Item #6 (see Appendix F, situation #2), which required the interlocutor to request a glass of wine in a five-star restaurant. On this item, the control group outperformed the test group only by .3%, reflected by p= .815. Pragmatically appropriate requests provided by the participants included "*Quisiera un vino*," "*Me gustaría un vino.*" 'I would like a glass of wine,' "¿*Me puede dar/traer un vino*?" 'Can you bring me a glass of wine?' a formal command, such as "*Tráigame un vino.*" 'Bring me a glass of wine,' "*Quiero/deseo/me gusta/necesito un vino.*" 'I want/need a glass of wine,' and simply "*un vino*" 'a glass of wine.' Pragmatically inappropriate utterances provided by the informants included "#¿*Puedo tener un vino*?" 'Can I have a glass of wine?' which is appropriate in English, but not in Spanish, informal commands, such as "#*Dame un vino*," 'Give me a glass of wine,' and grammatically or semantically incorrect utterance, such as "#¿*Puedo tengo vino?*" 'I can I have wine?' and "#*Tengo un vino.*" 'I have a glass of wine.'[39]

[39] # indicates that an utterance is either grammatically incorrect or pragmatically inappropriate. These responses were verified to be either appropriate or inappropriate by three Spanish NSs.

The other item on which the control group outperformed the test group was Item #10, in which the learner had to deflect the flirtatious advances of a friend's boyfriend.[40] The purpose of this situation was to contrast the two forms of address used in Spanish. This situation (#4), like all four situations, was based on interactions to which the learners had been exposed through the video series. The flirting boyfriend used the informal form of address, whereas the protagonist used the formal form of address, which is more pragmatically appropriate for Latin American speakers of the opposite sex who have just met. The informal form of address used by participants playing the role of the friend's flirtatious boyfriend with utterances such as "*¿Estás casada*?" 'Are you married?' were coded as correct (Item #9) while the formal form of address used by those playing the part of the protagonist with utterances such as "*Usted tiene suerte.*" 'You are lucky.' was coded as correct (Item 10). In absolute terms, on Item 10 almost 5% of the test group used the formal form of address while over 9% of the control group did so. Seventy-six percent of the test group and 73% of the control group either used neither form of address or did not respond to this item, because they were playing the role of the other interlocutor.[41] Therefore, **of those who responded to this item**, 20% of the test group and 33% of the control group provided appropriate, audible responses. For the purposes of this study, henceforth, the percentages of those who participated and responded audibly to each item are reflected in the percentages given. These were also the specifications for the percentages in Figure 4.2.

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[40] For this role-play situation, participants sometimes played the part of a character of the opposite gender.

[41] During the role-play activities, 50% of the interactants responded to each item. Since some participants were eliminated from the study for the reasons explained in Chapter Three and some utterances were inaudible, however, the number of non-respondents in this section is never 50%.

As Table 4 indicates, no statistical significance was found between the differences of the utterances provided by the two groups for Items #6 and 10. As Table 5 indicates, these two items involve a request and an instance of second person address, both of which were frequent in the input. Both types of items fluctuate in the rankings for both the written and oral data. Second person address falls at both the top and bottom of the rankings, though significance is seen only in favor of the test group. Requests also occur throughout the rankings though significance was never found with this speech act. Since all items solicited in the oral feedback instrument were frequent in the input, no patterns are possible in this respect. The data in Table 5 indicate that, although several speech acts were solicited, with the possible exception of introductions, no pattern emerged concerning the individual items.

4.332 Item #4: A special case

The participants not only performed equally as well on Item #4, but 100% of each group responded in a similar fashion. This item in Situation #1 solicited leave-taking during a telephone conversation. All of the participants ended the phone call in an extremely abrupt manner, which was judged to be pragmatically inappropriate by native speakers of both Spanish and English. Nearly all of the interlocutors merely said *"Adiós"* 'Good-bye' and mimicked hanging up the phone. In a study involving requests, Kasper (1997) noted that in oral situations English L2 speakers tended to be more abrupt than was pragmatically appropriate, and in written situations they were often more verbose than was appropriate. Our findings on this item involving Spanish L2 speakers and leave-taking extend Kasper's observation to another speech act.

The participants in our study may have behaved in this manner for various reasons. They may not have had the linguistic ability to transfer their L1 phone manners, or they had not acquired the equivalent Spanish conventions, or they were not interested in spending any more time on the role-play exercise than the minimum required to fulfill the task. It was observed that many of the interlocutors accompanied their leave-taking utterances with either a hesitation or a nervous or awkward laugh. This observation seemed to provide some anecdotal evidence that the participants in the study were aware that their utterances did not reflect the social conventions to which they were accustomed.

4.333 Item on which statistical significance was found

Statistical significance was found for Item #9, which concerned a form of address. For this item in situation #4 one person had to flirt with another by asking two questions. Appropriate utterances were those in which the informal form of address was used as had been done by the character in the video who used the address system as a way to show more familiarity than was appropriate, given the social situation in which the characters were involved. Appropriate utterances provided by the participants included "*¿Estás casada?*" 'Are you married?' "*¿Te gusta la playa?*" 'Do you like the beach?' while inappropriate responses included the same questions employing the formal form of address. Nearly all of the test group (93%) provided appropriate utterances while 71% of the control group did so ($p = .035$). On all three feedback instruments the test group performed significantly better than the control group on an example of second person address. Since examples of the second person address system were solicited on all nine test-group treatments during the semester,

these learners' performance on these particular items may be attributed to more enhancement in the treatments concerning second person address than concerning other types of items. As a similar item in the previous section indicates, however, these results are not consistent with all examples of second person address.

4.334 Other items on which the test group outperformed the control group

As mentioned previously, the test group outperformed the control group on seven of the ten items on the oral section of the feedback instruments (#1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, and 9). Item #1 involved a greeting in a telephone conversation, which was also addressed in an open-ended question on Part B of the written feedback (Appendix E, Item B2). On the written feedback 58% of the test group and 50% of the control group responded appropriately (p= .411), and on the oral role-play section, 30% of the test group and 23% of the control group participants who played the role of "person B" provided pragmatically appropriate responses (p= .537). Thus, the test group outperformed the control group in both instances, but not at a significant level. Greetings provided by the participants such as "*Bueno*," which was used in the video, and those used in other Spanish-speaking countries, such as "*Diga*" or "*Dígame,*" were considered appropriate while direct translations of the English "Hello" '*#Hola*' and other greetings that were considered inappropriate by Spanish NSs, such as "*#Sí,*" were not accepted. Though neither the differences in the written nor the oral responses to this item showed statistical significance, it is noteworthy that the test group outperformed the control group on both items and that both groups performed better on the written than on the oral sections, as was expected.

The test group also performed slightly better on Item #2 (p= .537) in which one person identifies him or herself on the telephone. For Item 2, learners' utterances such as *"Soy* ___." 'I am ___,' *"Habla* ___." '___ speaking,' and *"Me llamo* ___." 'My name is ___.' were considered appropriate by native speakers. A direct translation of the English "This is ___." '*#Este es* ____' was considered inappropriate by the native speaker informants. Items involving phone etiquette were included on all three feedback instruments. Of these, the test group performed better on three items, the control group performed better on one, and performance was equal on another. This fact, combined with the facts that telephone etiquette was frequent in the input and that no statistical significance was found on any of these five items, makes it difficult to make any claims regarding the effect of input enhancement on this particular pragmatic behavior.

For Item #3, the learners were asked to make a request to borrow another person's Spanish book. Some of their utterances that were marked as pragmatically appropriate were true requests, including "¿*Es posible usar tu libro*?" 'Is it possible to use your book?' *"Me permite usar…,"* 'Do you permit me to use…,' and "¿*Puedes prestarme* …?" 'Can you lend me…?' Other utterances provided by the participants that functioned as requests, but were more direct, such as *"Quiero/necesito tu libro,"* 'I want/need your book,' were also considered appropriate by Spanish NSs. Also, indirect utterances that functioned as requests, including "¿*Tienes tu libro de español*?" 'Do you have you Spanish book?' were considered appropriate. Requests that were considered pragmatically inappropriate included those that were grammatically correct, but are not used by Spanish native speakers, such as speaker-oriented requests "#¿*Puedo usar/prestar tu libro*?" 'Can I use/borrow your book?' and informants' requests that were grammatically incorrect, such as "#*Me uso el*

libro," 'I use myself the book,' or "#*Puede tengo tu libro*." 'Can he I have your book.' Forty-four percent of the test group and 35% of the control group provided pragmatically appropriate utterances (p= .483). Requests were included on all three feedback instruments. The test group outperformed the control group on four out of six of these; however, no statistical significance was found in favor of the test group concerning this speech act, which was frequent in the input.

For Item #5 of this section, which featured another request, 35% of the test group and 27% of the control group provided appropriate utterances (p= .550). This item required the learner to play the role of a waiter in a five-restaurant taking an order from a customer. Appropriate utterances required the use of the formal form of address, and some examples included "*¿Qué quiere/le gusta/pide usted*?" 'What do you want?' Utterances provided by the learners that were similar but that used the informal form of address were considered inappropriate. Also participants' speaker-oriented questions, such as the direct translation of the English "Can I take your order?" and utterances with grammatical errors, including "#*¿Pudas beber*," and "#*¿Cómo pide(s)*?" were considered inappropriate.

The test group performed better on Item #7 in terms of percentages, although the chi square (p= .233) did not indicate statistical significance. For Item #7, a person had to introduce one friend to another. Again, all participants in the study had been exposed repeatedly to this speech act while viewing the video throughout the semester. Appropriate forms provided by the participants for this item included "*Quiero presentarle/te a …*," 'I would like to introduce you to…,' and "*Este/a es…*," 'This is…' Seventy-four percent of the test group performed appropriately while only 58% of the control group did so. The test group performed relatively well with the speech act of introduction. For example, on the written section, their performance

reached statistical significance while for the oral section introductions were ranked second and third; however, no significance was found. Since significance was not found on two out of three of the introductions in the data, no claims can be made regarding this particular speech act despite relatively positive results.

In Item #8, the partner had to respond to the introduction in Item #7. Approximately 65% of the test group responded appropriately while 50% of the control group did so (p= .483). Responses provided by the learners, such as *"Mucho gusto," "El gusto/placer es mio,"* and *"Encantado/a,"* which all correspond functionally to the English 'Nice to meet you,' were considered appropriate for this item.

As stated in the preceding section, Item #9 was the seventh item on which the test group outperformed the control group. This item involved second person address, and statistical significance was found.

4.335 Conclusions on the oral feedback

In conclusion, out of the nine items on which one group performed better than another, there were seven items on which the test group performed better then the control group, although significance was found on only one of these items. Due to these findings concerning the individual items, no claims can be made concerning any particular speech act. When the total number of appropriate responses from each group was considered without regard to individual speech acts, the overall t-test p value of .15 indicated that there was a 15% chance that the overall results of the oral section were due to coincidence. For this study, the chance of coincidental results

was determined to be 10% or lower in order to claim that a statistical trend existed, and no more than a 5% likelihood of coincidence in order to claim statistical significance. So, while the results in this section were somewhat encouraging, they were much less indicative of treatment effects than the results obtained in the written section in which the participants were subjected to less communicative pressure and were given more time to focus on form.

4.34 The multiple-choice feedback

The participants took their semester final two weeks after the written and oral feedback were obtained. An optional section was placed on the final to which all of the learners in the Intensive Spanish course were asked to respond. Not many were expected to respond to this section, but almost all of the learners did so. Very few participants had to be eliminated from the total original corpus based on noncompliance with this section of the feedback. The instructions for this section also reminded the informants to use in their responses what they remembered from the interactions among the characters in the video.

Of the three feedback tasks performed by the participants in this study, the multiple-choice instrument allowed for the most focus on form. While both the written and multiple-choice feedback tasks provided the respondents with time to focus on form, the multiple-choice task put less pressure on them because the appropriate responses were in the options. Learners also faced less pressure on the

multiple-choice than on the oral instrument because they did not have to interact with others. Furthermore, while the other two instruments were production tasks, the multiple-choice section was a recognition task. Based on these factors drawn from research presented in earlier chapters (Salaberry & López-Ortega, 1998), it was hypothesized that the informants in both test and control groups would find it easier to recognize the appropriate pragmatic forms based on their exposure to the video than to actually produce them.

The third and final feedback instrument, consisting of eight multiple-choice questions, can be found in Appendix G. As Table 1 indicates, the data from this instrument showed nearly equal performance by the two groups concerning the recognition of pragmatically appropriate forms. Overall, the control group outperformed the test group on half of the items (Items #3, 4, 6, and 8) and the test group outperformed the control group on the other half of the items (Items #1, 2, 5, and 7). The results for this section are shown graphically on Figure 4.3 below. Chi square p values on the responses to the individual items, seen in Table 6, showed a statistical trend on Item #2 alone, which favored the test group. As a comparison of chi square measures in Tables 2, 4, and 6 indicates, chi square measures for most items in the multiple-choice section were quite high relative to the other two sections. This result means that the gap between the two groups on the written and to a lesser degree on the oral data was nearly closed for the multiple-choice recognition task. The result of the t-test for this section overall mirrored the other findings, such as average total scores and the chi square measures. It, too, reflected a nearly equal

ability for both groups to recognize appropriate forms. The t-test p value of .97 means that the two groups are only 3 percentage points from a score of 1, indicating a parity between the two groups.

Figure 4.3: Results for the individual items on the multiple-choice feedback

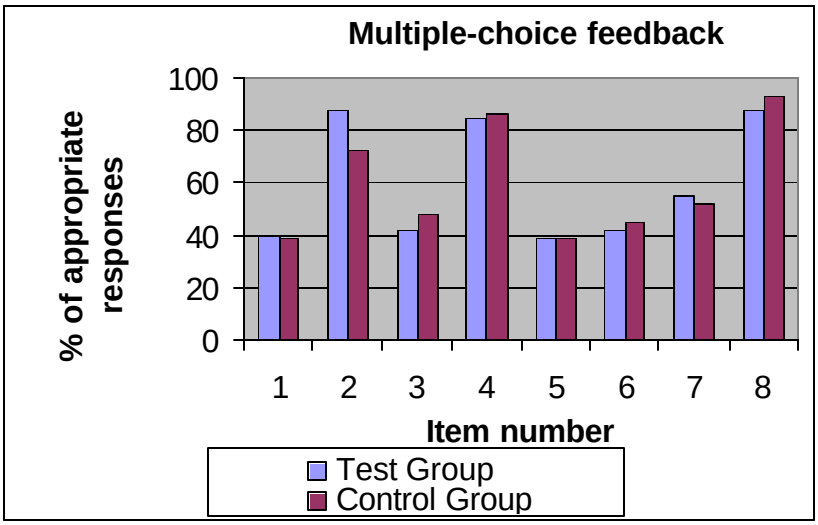

Table 6: Chi square results for the individual items on the multiple-choice feedback

Item number	1	2	3	4
p value	0.861	0.062*	0.554	0.724
Item number	5	6	7	8
p value	0.994	0.719	0.794	0.311

*Statistical significance-p<or=.05; Statistical trend-p >.05 <or=.10

In Table 7, the individual items are ranked in order of the test group's performance on them. Table 7 also includes the speech act solicited for each item, whether the item was frequent in the input, whether the item tested the use of a

specific pragmatic feature or general pragmatic awareness, which group performed better on each item, the chi square measure, and whether statistical significance was found.

Table 7: Rankings for the individual items on the multiple-choice feedback

Ranking	Item #	speech act	Classification	Frequent	Performance	significance	chi square
1st	2	2nd person address	use	yes	T>C	trend	0.062
2nd	7	compliment	use	no	T>C	none	0.794
3rd	1	deixis	use	no	T>C	none	0.861
4th	5	request	use	yes	T>C	none	0.994
5th	4	2nd person address	use	yes	C>T	none	0.724
6th	6	Greeting/leave-taking	use	no	C>T	none	0.719
7th	3	phone etiquette	use	yes	C>T	none	0.554
8th	8	General manners	awareness	yes	C>T	none	0.311

Although the results from the multiple-choice section were inconclusive overall, the individual items are reviewed to determine if any patterns emerge when these data are compared to the results from the other two feedback instruments previously reviewed.

4.341 Items on which the control group outperformed the test group

The control group outperformed the test group on Items #3, 4, 6, and 8 of the multiple-choice feedback (Appendix G). Although none of these individual results

rose to the level of statistical significance or trend, they did influence the overall t-test results for this section. Item #3 concerned the speech act of greeting in telephone conversations. The appropriate option was *"Bueno*." The other three choices were considered pragmatically inappropriate by Spanish NSs. Awareness and use of this form was also solicited in Item B2 of the written feedback and Item #1 of the oral feedback. While the test group was both more aware of differences in "phone manners" (written section) and actually performed more appropriately on this item (oral section), the test group did not have an advantage in recognition of appropriate forms. Since no significance was found for this particular speech act on any of the three feedback instruments, no claims can be made. On the multiple-choice section, 48% of the control group and 42% of the test group were able to recognize the appropriate greeting from the four choices that were provided (p= .554). Although these results are inconclusive, they do seem to support claims that learners can recognize correct linguistic forms before they are able to produce them.

Item #4 of the multiple-choice section concerned choice of address when speaking to a child. The most appropriate response was the informal form of address. Eighty-six percent of the control group and 84% of the test group were able to recognize this fact. As seen earlier, the data from the oral and written sections concerning this point were mixed; however, significance was found with one sample of second person address in favor of the test group on each of these instruments, and no significance on this point was found in favor of the control group, making this the pragmatic feature on which the test group performed the best.

Item #6 concerned a phenomenon seen in the video but tested only on this feedback instrument. While the expression "Good night" functions only as a leave-taking speech act in English, it serves as both a greeting and a leave-taking expression

in Spanish. Forty-five percent of the control group and 42% of the test marked the correct response (p= .719).

Item #8 concerns general awareness rather than actual use of a specific appropriate L2 form. For this item, only the response "What is friendly in English may sound unfriendly in Spanish and vice versa," was considered correct. Although other responses indicated an understanding of the concept of pragmatic differences between languages, since the most appropriate response was in view, it alone was accepted. As was the case with specific speech acts, no pattern emerged from the individual chi square measures concerning the effect of enhancement with general awareness as opposed to the specific use of L2 pragmatic features. As the data in Tables 3 and 7 show, for both the written and multiple-choice feedback instruments, items concerning use or general awareness of Spanish pragmatics received mixed results in the rankings and in terms of statistical significance.[42] For example, on the open-ended Item B9 of the written feedback 92% of the test group but only 75% of the control group could articulate an understanding that there are pragmatic differences between the two languages (p= .016). When given clear choices on Item #8 of the multiple-choice section, however, 93% of the control group and 87% of the test group selected the most appropriate response (p= .311). As mentioned earlier, although major conclusions cannot be drawn from isolated chi square measures on such a large corpus of data, it is interesting that these items provide yet another example of the test group performing better on production tasks but of relatively equal performance by the two groups on the recognition task. This pattern seems noteworthy because it may indicate that intervention elevated pragmatic awareness to

[42] By the nature of the instrument, the oral data concerned specific use of pragmatic appropriateness rather than general awareness.

a more conscious level. It is also noteworthy that, although the data from the individual chi square measures show no distinct pattern with items concerning specific use as opposed to those concerning general awareness of appropriate L2 pragmatics, when taken as a whole, the t-test measures in Table 1 show that statistical significance was found in the area of overall use as well as in the area of overall awareness in favor of the test group.

4.342 Items on which statistical significance was found

On the multiple-choice feedback section no statistical significance was found. In fact, only one statistical trend was found. This result distinguishes the multiple-choice feedback data from the written and oral data. It implies that, in the absence of intervention in the form of input enhancement, L2 learners may learn pragmatics on a subconscious level and, thus, recognize appropriate L2 pragmatics, but that input enhancement affects the ability to translate this recognition into oral and especially written production on a more conscious level.

Item #2 of the multiple-choice instrument is the only one on which a statistical trend ($p = .062$) was found. On this item, 87% of the test group marked the correct answer, which employs the formal address form, while only 72% of the control group did so. It is noteworthy that this item concerned the Spanish address system, since this was the area for which the test group obtained the most significant results.[43] This

[43] As previously mentioned, evidence form the oral feedback instrument concerning form of address is mixed but in favor of the test group. Item B3 of the written data showed statistical significance in the difference between the test and control groups' ability to produce correct examples of the two Spanish address forms in favor of the test group (89% vs. 68%, $p = .009$). On this particular multiple-choice item, the test group also recognized the most appropriate form at a somewhat significantly better level.

pattern may be due to the fact that the second person address forms were solicited on every treatment. Although the factor of frequency in the input does not result in any distinct trends in the individual chi square measures, frequency in the enhancement treatments may have some relevance.

4.343 Other items on which the test group outperformed the control group

On the remaining three items of the multiple-choice feedback instrument, the test group outperformed the control group, but no statistical significance or trend was found. The first item in this category involved deixis. This pragmatic element was seen in the video and commented on by many participants in the pilot and current study test groups on their weekly treatments throughout the semester. An item of this nature was included only on the multiple-choice feedback instrument. For this item, the most pragmatically appropriate response is "I'm going" used in place of "I'm coming," which would be the appropriate English utterance in the context given. Despite the fact that learners often mentioned this item throughout the treatments, only 40% of the test group and a very close 39% of the control group selected the appropriate choice on this item (p= .861).

Item #5 concerned ordering a glass of wine in a five-star restaurant. Such a request was also solicited in Item #6 of the oral role-play instrument. For both items, nearly the same result was found between the two groups in the data (p= .994 for the

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So, while the test group outperformed the control group on written, oral, and multiple-choice tasks, the gap between the two groups is narrowed on the oral and especially on the multiple-choice tasks.

multiple-choice and p= .815 for the oral task).[44] The pattern noted earlier in which the test group performed better in production rather than recognition relative to the control group is supported by the data obtained from this item, although the support is quite weak.

Finally, on Item #7 of the multiple-choice feedback, the test group outperformed the control group by a very small 55% to 52% margin (p= .794). This item involved a compliment heard and often commented on in the video series. The most appropriate response was an utterance used by a character in the video. The other choices were deemed inappropriate by Spanish NSs.

4.344 Conclusions on the multiple-choice feedback

The t-test for overall performance on the multiple-choice feedback task (p = .97) compared to those for the other two tasks (p= .002 for the written and .15 for the

[44] In this oral role-play item, 84% of the test and 86% of the control group produced appropriate request forms. Since more communicative pressure was placed on the learners during the oral role-play, nearly all requests that involved the formal form of address and hearer-oriented utterances were considered appropriate. Since the multiple-choice section provided options, however, only option 'c,' "*Me gustaría un vino tinto.*" 'I would like a glass of red wine.' was accepted as appropriate. Choices 'a' and 'd' would not have been accepted on either task since they involve an informal command and a speaker-oriented request respectively. Choice 'b,' a formal command, would have been accepted on the open-ended oral role-play, but was not accepted on the multiple-choice feedback because it is much less polite/appropriate than choice 'c.' In Spanish, as in English, the use of the conditional tense is considered much more polite than any command form. Because of these more stringent guidelines, only 38.7% of the test group and 38.6% of the control group received credit for a correct response on Item #5 of the multiple-choice feedback. Interestingly, if the same standards are applied to both oral and multiple-choice sections, we find that 8% of the test group and none of the control group respondents selected choice 'b.' Therefore, by these less stringent standards, 46.7% of the test group and 38.6% of the control group selected the most or somewhat appropriate responses to Item #5 of the multiple-choice section. This alternative interpretation makes the test group's outperformance of the control group more impressive, but not significant.

oral) indicates that, although the test group learners performed better on both written and oral production tasks, when the correct answer was available in a multiple-choice format, all learners demonstrated roughly equal L2 pragmatic competence. Since this multiple-choice instrument was administered two weeks subsequent to the other two instruments, the results could indicate that short-term advantages gained from using the experimental input enhancement treatments were soon lost. On the other hand, given that the multiple-choice instrument tested recognition rather than production and that the test group performed significantly better on the written section (p=. 002) and relatively better on the oral section (p= .15), a second interpretation is possible. The data may indicate that both groups of participants in the study could recognize more pragmatically appropriate forms following exposure to the video (and other factors beyond the scope of this study), but because of the input-enhancement treatments and the active video-viewing they encouraged, the test group appeared able to go beyond recognition and was able to produce more appropriate forms in oral and especially in written form.

In addition to the overall t-test scores, an analysis of the individual data from this section was conducted and compared to the data from the other two sections. Again, no pattern concerning speech acts, frequency in the input, or general awareness as opposed to use of specific pragmatic features was noted. Upon analysis of this and the other individual item data, only two patterns emerged. First of all, concerning similar items tested with different instruments, the test group learners tended to perform better on these particular items in terms of production rather than

recognition relative to the control group. Secondly, the test group's significant performance on items involving second person address on all three measures may indicate that either this area is more amenable to enhancement, or the fact that more enhancement was performed in this area had a positive result.

4.35 Summary of the data reviewed thus far

The data reviewed thus far (presented on the first five rows of Table 1 and on Tables 2 through 7) mainly addressed the first research question of this study. The first question is "What is the role of conscious awareness in the learning of L2 pragmatic features?" The data suggest that our approach to stimulating conscious awareness via input enhancement techniques may have a positive impact on L2 learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence, at least when analyzed in terms of overall general awareness and overall specific use, for the specific task of written production, and in the specific area of second person address.

The data mentioned thus far were analyzed from two perspectives. First, the data were analyzed from the perspective of items involving general L2 pragmatic awareness versus items involving the use of specific L2 pragmatic forms. This perspective considered linguistic function rather than the communicative task. When analyzed from this perspective, the data in both categories demonstrated that the test group performed better relative to the control group at a statistically significant level. This result seems to support our hypothesis that the type of input enhancement that was developed for this study, which stimulates conscious awareness of L2

pragmatics, may have a positive influence on the overall short-term development of L2 pragmatic awareness and use.

The data were also analyzed from the perspective of task: written production versus oral production versus multiple-choice recognition tasks. The results of the written production task indicated statistical significance. The results of the oral production task were close to indicating a statistical trend, but not strong enough to make any claims. The results of the multiple-choice task indicated that both test and control groups were able to recognize most pragmatically appropriate features to which they had been exposed through video at a nearly equal level. Hence, it would appear that the input enhancement treatments may have had more effect on developing the oral and especially written L2 pragmatic production of the learners. Within the framework of task, the individual items were also analyzed via chi square measures to determine if there were any patterns in the data. Patterns concerning speech act, awareness/use classification, and frequency in the input were sought, but no distinct patterns concerning these variables were discovered. Although the individual item analysis also revealed a mixed picture for items entailing second person address forms, the fact that statistical significance or trends were discovered concerning second person address on all three tasks in favor of the test group was considered noteworthy. It is hypothesized that these specific items may have reflected a pattern of statistical significance unlike those items concerning various speech act forms because second person address forms were solicited on every treatment. While speech acts were also solicited on each treatment, the specific speech acts that were noted by the learners varied.

Within the context of the above findings, attention is focused in the following sections on the data that mainly addressed the second and third research questions for this study.

4.36 The written feedback, Part A: Affect

Now that the data addressing the first research question have been presented and analyzed, the second research question ("How can interactive video viewing enhance pragmatic input?") is considered. To address this question, possible intervening variables, which, in tandem with the input enhancement treatments, may have contributed to the development of the test group's overall awareness and use of Spanish L2 pragmatics are examined. These intervening variables include the affect or attitude of the learners and time on task. To address the second research question, some additional qualitative data from Part A of the written feedback, such as learning styles and learners' reactions to different instructional strategies employed in the input enhancement instruments are examined.

First, the possible intervening variable of learner affect is discussed. For the purposes of this study, the term "affect" is used to include the learners' emotions, attitudes, and opinions toward the video component of the course. The responses provided to some items on Part A of the written feedback form (Appendix S) address the learners' affect. These include Items #1 through 9 and Item #13, which consider the learners' attitudes toward the video component of the course, including the way it was presented and its usefulness. Of these eleven items, the test group's responses

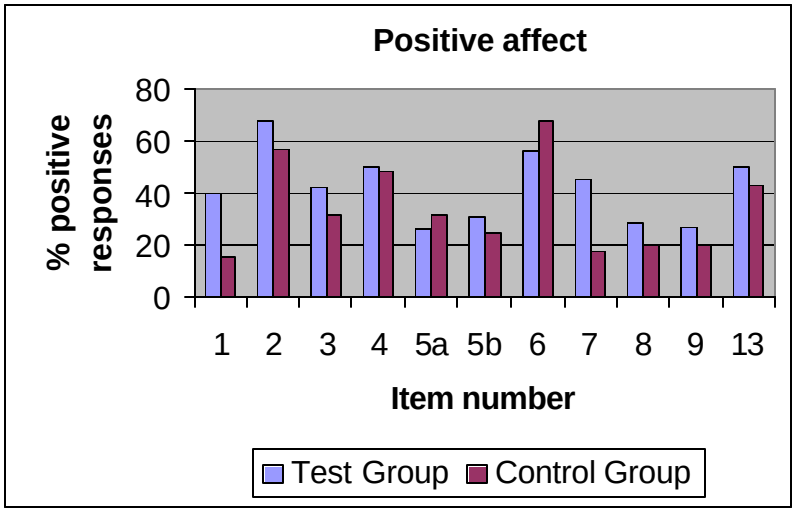
were more positive on nine (found under the column labeled "T>C ratio" and in the row labeled "Affect" on Table 1). Statistical significance was found in the differences between the responses to three of these items, all in favor of the test group, while a statistical trend was seen in responses to two items, one in favor of each group.[45] Since the data concerning affect are qualitative rather than quantitative in nature, a t-test could not be performed concerning the overall attitude of the groups relative to each other; therefore, "N/A" appears in the t-test column of Table 1. Most responses to this section could not be classified as right or wrong, all or nothing, but displayed gradients of relatively negative or relatively positive attitudes toward different aspects of the video component of the course. Thus, the criteria for the more powerful indicator of statistical significance, the t-test, could not be met. Since chi square measures, which compare relative frequencies of individual responses, were performed on each individual item, no strong claims can be made about any particular item but are used to determine the patterns that emerged from the data.

The frequencies of the learners' responses to the eleven affect items are displayed in Figure 4.4. More specifically, Figure 4.41 shows frequencies of relatively positive responses, 4.42 documents the frequency of relatively negative responses, and percentages of neutral responses are displayed in 4.43. Table 8 contains the results of the chi square test for statistical significance for each of the affect items.

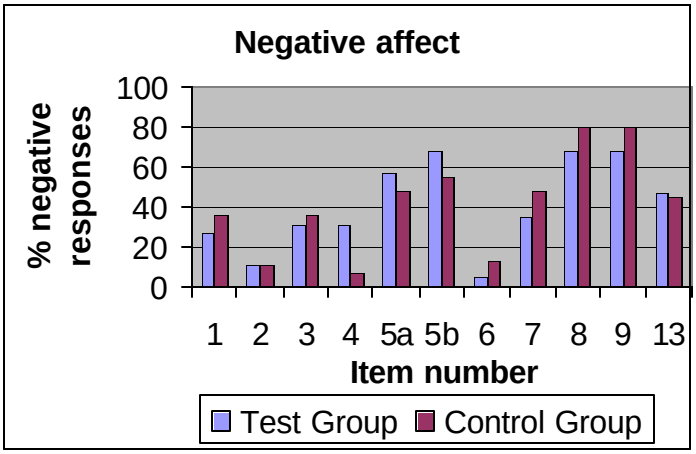
[45] Statistical significance was again defined as a p value of equal to or less than .05 on the chi square test, and a statistical trend was defined as a p value of greater than .05 but not greater than .10.

Figure 4.4: Frequencies of learner responses to affect items

4.41: Positive affect



4.42: Negative affect



4.43: Neutral affect

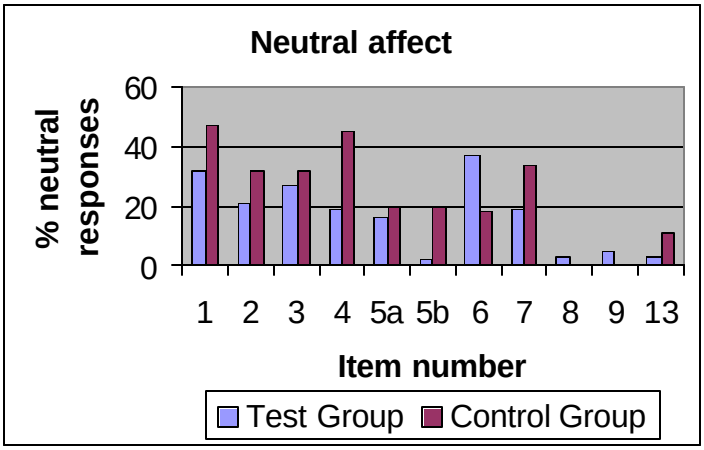


Table 8: Chi square measures of affect items

Item number	1	2	3	4	5a	5b
p value	0.068*	0.743	0.319	0.026*	0.646	0.005*
Item number	6	7	8	9	13	
p value	0.087*	0.045*	0.303	0.303	0.241	

*Statistical significance-p<or=.05; Statistical trend-p >.05 <or=.10

An overview of the eleven affect items is provided first followed by a discussion of the items. On the Likert scale developed for Items A1-A7 (Appendix E) of the questionnaire, the number 1 indicated the highest level of agreement with a statement and 5 indicated the highest level of disagreement with a statement. Therefore, a response of 1 or 2 was considered to reflect agreement with a statement, while responses of 4 or 5 were considered as disagreement, and responses of 3 or

"don't know" were considered to reflect neutral opinions. Whether or not a response reflected a positive or negative attitude depended on the wording of each particular item. For example, agreement with Item A4 ("*Destinos* was useful to learn about Hispanic culture.") indicated a positive attitude, while agreement with Item A5 ("I always dreaded the days I had to watch *Destinos.*") was indicative of a negative attitude.

Item A5b was an open-ended item in which responses were coded for negative or positive affect. Item A8 asked the respondents to rank the components of the course in terms of usefulness in learning the L2, and Item A9 asked them to rank the usefulness of the video in learning different aspects of the L2. In order to compare the attitudes of the two groups of participants, positive affect for Item A8 was considered as assigning a higher importance to the video component of the class relative to the other components. Since no one ranked the video in first place, relatively positive affect was considered as ranking it as the second or third most important component of the course while no response was considered a neutral opinion. This criteria was established because, if one group felt significantly that the video component of the course was more useful for learning than the other group, this belief might result in a more positive attitude toward this component, which could influence the video's effectiveness as a teaching tool. In contrast, if one group felt that the video was relatively useless, these learners might be less motivated when engaging in the viewing activity. Research (Gardner, 1979, 1980; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Yule & Tarone, 1989) shows that motivation influences the learning

process. Item A9 addressed which group assigned a relatively higher value to the video's usefulness in the learning of pragmatics in order to determine if there were any self-fulfilling prophecy. To compare the opinions of the two groups, responses placing pragmatics in first or second place were deemed as relatively positive affect and those placing it in third through fifth place were considered as relatively negative affect. Item A13 was an open-ended question that solicited opinions on how the video was used in the course. For this item, the learners' responses were also coded for positive or negative opinions. The findings for each item and the patterns that emerged are now discussed in more detail.

4.361 Items on which the control group showed more positive affect

As Figure 4.41 illustrates there were only two items on which the control group exhibited a more positive attitude. The results of one of these items (#5a) were statistically insignificant, but those of the other (#6) indicated a trend. On Item A5a, "I always dreaded the days I had to watch *Destinos*." 32% of the test group indicated strong agreement while 34% of the control group did so. But, when both stronger and weaker agreement (1 and 2 on the Likert scale) are considered, the test group agrees with the statement by a 10% margin (58% for the test group versus 48% for the control group). This finding indicates a slightly more negative attitude toward the video component of the course on the part of the test group. For this item, 32% of the control group and only 26% of the test group disagreed by marking a 4 or a 5 on the

Likert scale. Disagreement with this statement reflected a more positive affect. As Table 8 indicates, however, no statistical significance or trend was found on this item (p= .646).

It is interesting that the other item on which the control group showed a more positive attitude was Item #6 (p= .087), "Our *Destinos* quizzes seemed fair to me, because they accurately reflected what I learned from the program." In fact, this item was one on which a statistical trend was found. These two items taken together may indicate that the heavier workload expected of the test group negatively influenced these learners' attitude toward the video component of the course.[46]

4.362 Items on which statistical significance was found

Statistical significance was found on three of the eleven items in the affect section of the feedback instruments. On all three of these items (#4, 5b, and 7), the test group displayed a more positive attitude than the control group.

Despite the fact that more members of the test group reported that they dreaded *"Destinos* day" (Item A5a), when asked to explain why they did or did not dread these days (Item A5b), the test group gave both more positive and more negative responses while the control group showed much more neutrality in their

[46] On closer inspection of all of the data in Figure 4.4, however, it was noted that the control group's responses to Item A6 were both more positive and more negative while the test group showed much more neutrality on the *Destinos* quizzes (37% of the test group as opposed to 18% of the control group respondents). Therefore, the statistical trend seen in this chi square test seems to reflect the neutrality

opinions on this item. Responses that were coded for positive affect included such comments as "Although I dreaded it, the video helped me," "The video was useful," "It was good for listening comprehension," "It was an easy component of the course," "It provided variety," "It wasn't bad," and "I liked the video story line." Responses coded as negative included "I didn't like the story line," "The video was unimportant/useless," "The homework was too hard," "I had to rewind too many times in order to perform the homework assignment," "The homework assignments were distracting," "The grammar was too hard," and "The sound quality was bad." For this item, no response or "I don't know." was coded as a neutral opinion. Table 8 indicates that statistical significance was found in the difference between the learners' responses to this item (p= .005).[47] It illustrates that the difference between the opinions of the two groups is quite impressive. Since the results of this item reflect strong as opposed to neutral opinions (rather than negative vs. positive opinions), however, this item is difficult to consider in terms of the influence of affect on the participants' pragmatics acquisition. So, despite the high degree of statistical significance on Item A5b, the weight of all of the items in this section combined should be considered more relevant than this individual item.

Statistical significance was also found on two additional affect items (A4 and A7). Item A4 was designed to gauge the learners' perceptions of the video's

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of the test group as much as the stronger feelings in both directions on the part of the control group participants.

[47] The p value for this item, p = .005, is so low that when the Bonferroni Adjustment measure is applied to this item, it comes very close (.0005 point) to still being significant. Since there are eleven

usefulness to learn about Hispanic culture. The test group's responses to this item were slightly more positive overall. While their responses were more positive overall, however, more individuals in the test group also provided negative responses than did individuals in the control group, while the control group reaction was more neutral on the subject. So, like the previous item, the statistical significance on the chi square test can be attributed to both the stronger opinions of the test group and the more neutral attitude on behalf of the control group.

Item A7 ["*Destinos* taught me a lot about what to say in different situations in Spanish-speaking countries. (For example, it taught me when to use the '*tú*' or '*usted*' form, how to answer the phone in Spanish, etc.)"] was very important to this study because it asked the participants to evaluate the usefulness of the video to learn L2 pragmatics. In responding to this item, 45% of the test group indicated that they believed that it had helped their pragmatics acquisition. For their part, only 18% of the control group agreed that the video had helped them in this area of L2 learning. Significance reflected only the positive opinions of the test group while it reflected both negative and neutral opinions on the part of control group participants.

Statistical trends were found in response to two affect items, one in favor of the test group and the other in favor of the control group. In response to Item A1 ("*Destinos* helped me to improve my Spanish grammar"), 40% of the test group responded with a 1 or 2 on the Likert scale, while only 16% of the control group did so (p= .068). For this item, the trend reflected a more positive attitude on the part of

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items in the affect category, in order to obtain the Bonferroni Adjustment, the maximum p value for significance, .05, is divided by 11, which results in a quotient of .0045.

test group respondents and both more negative and more neutral attitudes from those in the control group. As mentioned previously, the statistical trend on Item A6, which addressed perceptions of fairness regarding the *Destinos* quizzes, favored the control group in terms of positive affect. On this item, however, the control group gave more negative responses as well. In other words, more respondents from the control group responded with a 1 or 2 on the Likert scale and with a 4 or 5, while more test-group participants responded with a neutral 3 or "I don't know." The responses to this item were interesting because participants in the test group were asked to do much more work for each five-point quiz than did those in the control group. Apparently, this item, as well as the affect section as a whole, indicate that the increased workload did not have an overall negative influence on the test group's attitude toward the treatments, as was expected by the researcher.

In summation, of the five items on which statistical significance or a trend was found, two (#1 and 7) reflected more positive attitudes on the part of the test group, two (#4 and 5b) represented stronger opinions in both directions on the part of the test group and more neutrality from the control group members, and one item (#6) reflected stronger opinions on the part of the control group and more neutrality from the test group. Of interest, the two items for which the test group showed only more positive opinions (#1 and 7) concerned pragmatics and grammar, two items that formed the main **content** of the treatments. Strong opinions in both directions concerned two items (#5b and 6) involving the **form** (nature and fairness) of the treatments. The other item on which strong opinions occurred in both directions (#4)

concerned culture, which was given less relative importance on the treatments in relation to pragmatics and grammar. Also, the other item on which the control group reported more positive, though not significant, reaction (#5a) involved form rather than content. Hence, the test group demonstrated a more consistently positive attitude regarding the elements that they perceived to be the focus of the treatments, although they had mixed opinions regarding the treatments themselves. While the affect of the test group appeared more positive overall, the results from this line of inquiry are not simple and clear but are quite complex and seem to indicate a more consistently positive attitude on items involving content rather than form.

4.363 Other items on which the test group showed more positive affect

On all of the items that have not been mentioned in previous sections, the test group provided more positive responses than did the control group, but none of the frequencies rose to a significant level. These items are briefly reviewed in order to determine if there is any more evidence of the pattern that emerged in the previous section concerning content and form.

On Item A2, 68% of the test group believed that the video improved their listening comprehension while 57% of the control group agreed with this statement ($p = .743$). Given that the control group was encouraged to use the video only for listening comprehension while the test group was encouraged to use it for several purposes, this difference in the responses of the two groups is noteworthy.

Even though the test group was asked to do much more with the video, 42% of the test group participants disagreed with the statement in Item A3 that the video "seemed mostly like 'busy work' to me," while 32% of the control group disagreed with this statement (p= .319). Further evidence that the learners may have found the test group treatments to be more meaningful was found on Item A8 in which they were asked to rank the importance of different components of the course as to their usefulness in teaching them Spanish. While 60% of the control group considered the video as the least important component of the class, only 43% of the test group ranked this component of the course at the bottom (p= .303).

The responses to Item A9, in which the learners had to rank the usefulness of the video for learning different elements of the L2, suggest that slightly more test group learners (27% vs. 20%, p= .303) considered the video component as beneficial to the development of appropriate L2 pragmatics. This opinion was reflected by ranking "To learn what Spanish speakers say in different situations" as either the first or second most beneficial use of the video. Eighty percent of the control group and 68% of the test group ranked pragmatics as the third through last (fifth) most beneficial use of the video.

The feedback from the learners on Item A13 ("What do you think about *Destinos* and the way it was used in this class?") reinforced the findings from the responses to Item A12 ("If you were a Spanish instructor, how would you make *Destinos* more useful to the students?"). From responses to these two items, it was apparent that learners believed that the video component of the course received little

support during class time. Although expressed as a common frustration by the learners in both test and control groups, this belief reinforces the findings of this study because one of our goals was to minimize classroom instruction involving this component.[48]

Concerning the pattern that was seen in the previous sections, for these five items on which the test group indicated a more positive attitude, three concern form (#3, 8, and 13) and two concern content (#2 and 9). Therefore, the pattern is not reinforced by items in this section.

4.364 Summary: Affect as an intervening variable

In conclusion, it is noteworthy that the test group exhibited a slightly more positive attitude overall toward the video component of the class than did the control group. Of the three items on which significance was found, all reflected a more positive attitude on the part of the test group. Of the eleven items in this section, the test group results were at least slightly more positive in attitude on nine. Since the two items on which the control group indicated a more positive attitude concerned form (fairness and work load) and three of the items on which significance or a trend in favor of the test group were found concerned content (pragmatics, grammar, and

[48] Responses that were coded as positive included "The video improved my listening comprehension," "I liked *Destinos*", and "I liked the way my instructor used the video." On Item A13, the test group provided slightly more positive responses than the control group, 50% vs. 43% (p= .241). Responses to Item A13 that were considered to reflect negative attitudes included comments that more class time should be dedicated to the video viewing that was done outside of class, that the video should be viewed during class time, that either another video or no video should be used for the course, that the grammar was too hard, or that the plot line was not to their liking.

culture), a weak pattern in the data indicating that the test group exhibited a more positive attitude toward the content of the treatments than toward their form was discerned.

Since affect influences motivation and learning, it is possible that affect is an intervening variable in this experiment. Providing the test-group participants with this type of input enhancement may have resulted in a somewhat more positive affect, which may have, in turn, exerted an influence on these learners' awareness and use of pragmatics.

4.37 The written feedback, Part A: Time on task

Another possible intervening variable that could influence the learners' awareness and acquisition of pragmatic features of the L2 could be the amount of time spent on the video component of the course, commonly referred to as "time on task." Since this study involved video viewing done outside of class, learners could dedicate different amounts of time to it. As explained previously, the test group participants were asked to view the assigned video episodes at home while filling out the input enhancement treatments. These treatments served as their quizzes and, hence, their grade for this component of the course. The control group participants were asked to view the same assigned episodes at home, followed by an objective or short answer quiz concerning the content of the episodes the next day in class. This

component of the course constituted an equal portion of the course grade (4.5%) for all participants in the study.

Out-of-class assignments and take-home quizzes pose a risk in an academic setting, since learners in both groups had the option to choose not to perform the assignment. For example, those in the control group could opt not to perform the assignment and to take their chances on the quiz the next day in class. If the quiz was multiple choice, they could make educated or random guesses and if it was short answer, they could rely on information provided by classmates concerning the episodes before class. Likewise, test group participants could opt not to comply with the assignment. They could choose not to watch the video and not to turn in an input enhancement assignment, they could make educated guesses on some items, they could take turns with classmates viewing episodes and sharing answers, or always get answers from a classmate. It might seem that having learners view the video in class could circumvent this situation, but anecdotal experience from several instructors confirmed that the half-hour episodes demanded too much instructional time and many learners were still not on task for the activity. Research confirms that input does not automatically translate to attention or intake (Bialystok, 1993, 1994; Gass & Madden, 1985; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Tomlin & Villa, 1994).

Our attempt to gauge the learners' time on task involved some complications. The data relied on self-report from the learners, and also problematic was determining what constituted conscious attention or on-task behavior. The time-on-task issue was addressed with Item A10 "Of the 9 *Destinos* viewings, how many did you miss?" and

Item A11 "How much time on average did you spend on *Destinos* each week?" The learners' responses are presented in the two rows labeled "time on task" on Table 1. The overwhelming majority of both groups reported that they had complied with the out-of-class assignments. While the test group reported missing 14% of the viewings on average, the control group reported missing 24% on average. These responses indicate statistical significance (p= .03). A cautionary note here is that, in response to Item A14 posed to the test group concerning their learning styles, 19% reported that "I [only] watched the episodes long enough to get the answers." Therefore, the test group response could be inflated due to the viewing of partial rather than complete episodes.

In response to Item A11, the test group reported that they spent an average of 102.5 minutes on each assignment while the control group reported an average of only 66.8 minutes. Statistical significance was also found for this item (p= .00001).[49] Although chi square measures were also performed on this data and are included in Table 1, it was determined that they are not as relevant because the learners' responses were broken down into many categories and many of these categories had very few members. These chi square measures indicate that there was a great deal of variance between the responses of the two groups, but do not indicate directionality, as the t-tests do.

[49] Since this line of inquiry included two items, the conservative Bonferroni Adjustment (the minimum p value for significance, .05, divided by 2) results in a quotient of .025. Therefore, the t-test p value for the differing average amount of time each group spent viewing the video each week, .00001, was still significant when applying this adjustment.

It is possible that the learners in the test group spent more time on task because the methodology developed for this study made the video more meaningful to the L2 learning process and, therefore, made the learners more willing to dedicate time to it. It is also possible that the form-focused input enhancing evaluation used for this study encouraged the learners to dedicate more time to the video in order to receive good grades. If the additional time the test group dedicated to viewing the video involved attention and intake, time on task could be considered an intervening variable influencing their use and awareness of L2 pragmatics.

4.38 Other items on Part A of the written feedback

While most items on the feedback instruments were geared toward determining the learners' awareness and use of appropriate Spanish pragmatics or intervening variables in this study, other items were included to obtain a more in-depth understanding of the participants' reactions to and interactions with the video component of the course. Since the data in this section are of a qualitative and descriptive nature, statistical measures were either not possible or not relevant. These items were included in this study in order to provide a more complete picture of the language learners and the language-learning process as they relate to the type of input enhancement treatments proposed to assist the development of the learners' pragmatic competence. Included in this section are learners' suggestions to improve the use of the video in the L2 classroom, the learners' video viewing styles, and their

reactions to relatively deductive as opposed to relatively inductive instructional strategies employed in the study.

4.381 Suggestions to improve the use of video

In response to Item A12, an open-ended question that solicited suggestions from the learners in both groups on how to improve the video component of the course, 42% of the test group suggested that there should be more support in the classroom. This response was not surprising since the test group instructors were purposefully left out of the process of developing and correcting quizzes and classroom time spent on the video component of the course was limited to the greatest extent possible. A surprising result is that half of the control group (50%) also indicated that they wished their instructors had spent more time on the video component of the course during class time. Although the author offered to correct the control group quizzes, they were designed by the individual instructors. The fact that so many learners expressed a desire to spend more class time on the video component seems to indicate that both test and control group instructors gave the video component of the course less time and importance relative to the other components of the course. Since lack of classroom support was the primary complaint of both groups, the intervention into the learning process by the treatments developed for this study did not appear to influence the instructors' emphasis on the video component. The fact that approximately half the learners complained that the video component of the course was not given enough attention by instructors adds more weight to the

relative influence of the experimental treatments and video viewing alone on the learners.

Other responses to Item A12 were much less frequent. Ten percent of the test and 14% of the control group suggested that the video be watched during class time. As mentioned earlier, however, this approach had been tried and abandoned by many instructors in the past. It is noteworthy that "No response" was the third most frequent response (11% and 7% of control and test group informants, respectively) implying that these repondents were either content with the format being used, could not think of a better one, or had no opinion on the subject. Of interest, almost 10% of the test group suggested that the video should be viewed for plot only, implying that the input enhancement treatments should be eliminated.[50]

In conclusion, the fact that nearly half of the participants provided the same response to an open-ended question can indicate two things. First, a condition that was desired for this study, limited classroom discussion of the video, was met. Second, assuming this study indicates that this type of input enhancement is beneficial to the learner, it would probably be more beneficial if combined with the support from the instructors that the learners' responses indicate they desire.

[50] Other suggestions included "use a different video," "don't use a video at all," "give more credit for the quizzes" (one response from the test group), "lessen the workload," "don't change anything," "provide cloze captioning," "make the quizzes harder so students have to watch" (one response from the control group), and "make the video component more fun." Each of these latter suggestions were provided by fewer than 10% of the learners, however.

4.382 Video-viewing styles

Item A14 (Appendix E) applied to the test group only. It was intended to determine the learning styles employed by the learners in the study in order to determine to what degree they were using analytical viewing strategies. This knowledge could be applied to the development of future methodologies and studies. The learners' responses to this item are seen in Table 9.

Table 9: Learning styles used by the test group

Response	Percent of responses
A. I would get the information to fill out the quizzes as soon as possible and then relax and watch the rest of the show for the sake of the plot only.	32%
B. I would watch the show focusing on the plot and then get the information for the quizzes near the end of the episodes.	5%
C. I would look for answers to the quizzes at a relaxed pace throughout the episodes.*	23%
D. After I got the answers, I would keep Sociolinguistic competence, strategic Competence, etc. in mind while watching the rest of the episodes.*	8%
E. I watched the episodes long enough to get the answers to the questions.	19%
F. Other* _____	5%
No response	8%

*Responses desired by investigators. "Other" responses all involved watching the video once for content and once to address the treatments.

The participants were provided with the five anticipated approaches to completing the treatments seen in Table 9 and also an option to describe any other techniques they may have employed. Since the ultimate goal of the methodology

employed by this study is to encourage language learners to become analytical observers of the L2 environment, Approaches C, D, and those supplied under "other" were the most desirable for our purposes. Of the 32% who used Approach A, however, there is a possibility that, once made aware of the formal properties of the L2, they were more cognizant of formal properties while relaxing and viewing the remainder of the video than they realized. This area may be addressed in future studies by exploring means that encourage analytical viewing throughout the video, such as including items pertaining to pragmatics throughout the assigned video segment.

Approach E, reported by 19% of the test group, was, of course, not desired by the investigator. Since plot summaries were required on the treatments, however, more scrutiny or more weight given to that section of the assignment could encourage learners to view the entire video.

The 5% (three learners) who marked "other" commented that they watched the episodes once for plot and once to fill out the input enhancement treatments. This methodology was the one that had been encouraged during the original pilot project for this study, but had been quickly abandoned due to lack of compliance on the part of the participants. This optimal methodology, which would involve no trade-off between attention to meaning and attention to form, could best be achieved in the L2 classroom by means of an instructional methodology such as using shorter video segments or viewing these segments once in the classroom for one purpose and assigning them as homework for another purpose.

In conclusion, from the responses provided to Item A14, it appears that at least 36% of the test group participants applied a learning strategy that involved conscious awareness to linguistic form throughout the viewing period. The remaining test group participants appear to have employed some kind of form-focused strategy only to the extent needed in order to complete the required task. There is debate in the linguistics community regarding the learners' ability to comprehend form and meaning simultaneously (VanPatten, 1989, 1990). Since these skills were encouraged in our treatments, this issue is explored in a later section.

4.383 Relatively deductive and inductive strategies

In response to Items A16 and A17 on the written feedback form, learners in the test group provided some interesting feedback regarding the different instructional strategies (relatively inductive and deductive) employed in the treatments for this study. Item A16 (Appendix E) concerns level of difficulty. It poses the question "Which type of question did you find more difficult?" The first selection ("Questions that asked me to find a quote in a GENERAL area [grammar, sociolinguistics, etc.] on my own" applies to the items that were more inductive in nature while the second selection ("Questions that asked me to find a SPECIFIC quote [ex. What did Jorge say to Raquel when. . .]") applied to the items on the treatments that were more deductive in nature. The learners' responses to Item A16 were surprising because, from experience with the pilot projects, it had been hypothesized that the open-ended, more inductive questions, such as Items #1 and 2

on the first treatment (Appendix D), would pose less difficulty than questions regarding specific quotes, such as those on the fourth and fifth treatments (Appendices D, Items # 1-3 and Item #1, respectively). The learners disagreed, however. By a 14-point margin (39% vs. 25%) they believed that it was easier to find and analyze a given quote than to find and analyze a quote of their choice, as shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Inductive and deductive treatment items (Test group only)

Item type	Level of difficulty (A16)	Level of learning (A17)
Inductive	39%	44%
Deductive	25%	13%
Equal	33%	40%*

*Of this 40%, 23% indicated that the two types of inquiry were equally useful and 17% that they were equally useless to improve their Spanish.

It is interesting to note the interaction between the learners' responses to this item and to the other item displayed in Table 10. Item A17 concerned the usefulness of the different instructional strategies in the opinion of the participants and, while the majority found the relatively inductive items to be more difficult to address, they found them to be more useful in the L2 learning process (44% as opposed to 13%).

It is also noteworthy that several learners found both instructional strategies to be equally challenging (33%). On Item A17, 23% found both types of inquiry to be equally useful, and 17% found them to be equally useless; therefore, 83% of the

participants found either one or both lines of inquiry to be useful in the learning of Spanish.

In conclusion, the responses to Items A16 and A17 seem to indicate that both types of inquiry are beneficial to some learners for the learning of L2 pragmatics and that both types merit inclusion in input enhancement activities.

4.39 The written feedback: Global comprehension

In order to address the third and final research question in this study, which was "Does form-focused input enhancement affect learners' global comprehension?", two items were included on the written feedback instrument (see Items A15 and B15 of the written feedback instrument in Appendix E). These two items were designed to determine if encouraging interactive video viewing with form-focused input enhancement assignments would influence the learners' comprehension of the plot of the video series.

Item A15 (Appendix E) was asked of the test group participants only. It was a self-report item that inquired whether the input enhancement treatments motivated greater concentration, which resulted in better plot comprehension, or were a distraction, which hindered global comprehension. More test group informants (44% as opposed to 32%) believed that the form-focused input enhancement techniques used in this study facilitated rather than hindered plot comprehension. Some of the informants (24%) marked "Other reaction" in response to this item, and seemed to

believe that their global comprehension was not affected at all by our method of enhancing the video input. Therefore, most of the participants (68%) concluded that form-focused input enhancement does not hinder global comprehension.

In order to supplement the self-report information gained from Item A15, Item B15 (Appendix E) was also included. While Item A15 solicited the desired information in a direct manner, Item B15 sought to obtain information regarding global comprehension in an indirect manner. Also, while Item A15 could only be addressed by the test group, Item B15 compared the global comprehension of the two groups. Participants from both groups were asked to respond to Item B15 ("Please take a minute or two and write quickly in note form and in English the details that you remember from the episodes of *Destinos* that you saw this semester."). As the row labeled "plot items recalled" on Table 1 shows, the treatments did not appear to have a deleterious effect on the learners' global comprehension. In fact, the test group recalled more details on average (9.1 versus 7.3) than did the control group on Item B15. This is interesting because the control group was asked to focus only on plot while the test group was asked to focus on many features of the video. The t-test ($p = .08$) indicated a statistical trend when comparing the difference of the performance of the two groups on plot recollection.[51] Although a trend is not as

[51] The chi square test, which compared the frequencies of every response, was also performed on these data and included in Table 1. It showed no statistical significance between the two groups; but is of less relevance because responses were quite varied and many cells in the crosstabulation had few respondents. Also, while the chi square measures reflect variety in responses, they do not indicate directionality. The t-test measure, which compared the overall means and standard deviations of the participants' responses, was a more relevant measure for this particular item.

strong as statistical significance, it provides evidence that global comprehension was not hindered and suggests that it may have been enhanced.

In conclusion, both self-report and plot recollection data obtained in order to address the third research question of this study suggest that global comprehension may have actually improved rather than been hindered as a result of enhancing the video input with form-focused treatments. Although some previously mentioned research indicates that form-focused attention hinders global comprehension, these findings point more toward a focus on morphological form. VanPatten's research (1989, 1990) suggests that lexical-level attention does not seem to hinder global comprehension as does morphological-level attention. The fact that information solicited in the treatments for this study tended to be at the lexical level may provide an explanation for our seemingly contrary results. This study may take VanPatten's conclusions one step further because the data suggest that a focus on form at the lexical level may actually increase the comprehension of a plot. Perhaps this increase in plot comprehension is because our input enhancement instruments encouraged an interactive rather than a passive viewing style that may have increased the learners' overall concentration level.

4.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS ON THE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The data in this chapter were gathered in order to address the three research questions posed by this study. All of the data are summarized in Table 1. Written, oral, and multiple-choice tasks were used as contexts in which to examine the role of

conscious awareness in the learning of L2 pragmatic features. Our data suggest that, when communication pressure is low and learners have time to focus on form, learners exposed to this form of input enhancement are more aware of and are more able to produce pragmatically appropriate written forms in the L2 than learners who are not exposed to this type of input enhancement. This ability is suggested in the fact that the test group participants in this study performed better than the control group participants on the written task at a statistically significant level.

When communicative pressure was increased, as was the case with the oral feedback section of this inquiry, the test group did not perform significantly better than the control group. They outperformed the control group on 70% of the items and the t-test measure of $p = .15$ was not far from the threshold required for a statistical trend, but, the data do not allow claims regarding this task. The weak findings in this area may have occurred because the awareness the learners demonstrated on the written section may not be accessible at the spontaneous oral level.

Our data from the multiple-choice feedback section were the weakest in the study. They seem to suggest that both groups were able to recognize appropriate L2 pragmatic forms as a result of exposure to the input with or without enhancement.

Concerning the three tasks performed by the participants, the production of some appropriate forms in oral, and especially written, form suggest that the input enhancement appeared to benefit the L2 learners somewhat regarding production of pragmatically appropriate L2 forms.

The data from all three tasks also suggest that enhancement was beneficial in the area of second person address. This result may be attributed to the fact that second person address was an area that was solicited on all of the input enhancement treatments. The data did not provide evidence that enhancement influenced the

appropriate production of any particular L2 speech act. This weak finding could reflect the fact that no particular speech act was repeatedly solicited in the treatments due to the holistic nature of the study. The data also did not provide consistent evidence for awareness of items encountered frequently as opposed to infrequently in the input.

The written, oral, and multiple-choice data were analyzed from two perspectives. When all of the data were analyzed from the perspective of feedback items concerning general pragmatic awareness as opposed to those concerning the use and production of a specific pragmatic form, rather than in terms of communicative task, the data from this study are more encouraging. When viewed from this holistic perspective, there is statistical significance in favor of the test group in both exhibiting a greater general awareness of pragmatic differences between the L1 and the L2 ($p = .016$) and in producing more pragmatically appropriate forms in the L2 ($p= .046$).

In order to address the second research question regarding how interactive video viewing can enhance pragmatic input, two possible intervening variables that could influence the learners' pragmatic output were considered. These two variables were learner affect and time on task. Although the picture regarding affect was complex, the test group showed a more positive attitude on nine out of eleven items, with statistical significance for three and a statistical trend for one of these nine items. Our hypothesis is that their somewhat more positive attitude is because the group of learners who were exposed to the type of video enhancement techniques employed in this study may have believed that this component of the course was more meaningful to the overall L2 learning experience.

The data suggest that encouraging interactive video viewing had an influence on the time on task that the participants dedicated to the video component of the course. The test group learners reported viewing more episodes and spending significantly more time viewing each episode of the video. If this additional time on task involved more time attentively focused on the language use in the video, it may be considered as an intervening variable because it may have positively affected awareness and use of pragmatics. It is speculated that a connection between the learners' more positive attitude and their apparent willingness to dedicate more time to the video component of the course may exist.

In conclusion, the data suggest that the statistical significance obtained for the test group learners' pragmatic awareness and use was likely influenced somewhat by the two intervening variables of learner affect and time on task.

Other variables, such as the learners' suggestions for improving the video component of the course, their learning styles, and their reactions to different instructional strategies, were also considered in judging the effect of interactive video viewing on enhancing pragmatic input. On an open-ended inquiry on how to improve instruction, nearly half of the learners in both groups suggested that instructors should spend more class time supporting the video component of the course. Since this study sought to minimize the effect of classroom instruction, the test group learners' responses suggest that this effort was successful. This apparent success may strengthen the claims that can be drawn from the data. Another conclusion that may be drawn from the learners' responses concerns their acquisition of appropriate L2 pragmatics. While our data suggest that pragmatic input can be enhanced through treatments that encourage interactive video viewing without direct instruction, if instructors were to fortify this enhancement by further drawing the learners' attention

to the pragmatic input presented in video, the learners' awareness and use of appropriate L2 pragmatics most likely would be further improved. In other words, if direct teaching of L2 pragmatics were to be maximized (rather than minimized) in addition to this input enhancement methodology, the learners' pragmatic competence might be improved to a greater degree.[52]

Items soliciting the learners' video viewing styles and reactions to relatively deductive versus inductive instructional strategies also shed some light on the effect of enhancing video in this study as well as directions for future research and development of input enhancing materials. From the learners' responses to these items, it is concluded that it would be beneficial to devise techniques to encourage learners to maintain analytical viewing techniques throughout video viewing sessions. Such techniques can bolster one goal of this ongoing input enhancement investigation, which maintains that the development of analytical viewing techniques by the language learner should become "automated" to such an extent that the language learner will transfer these analytical strategies to "real life" L2 environments. In other words, the goal is for L2 learners to be more able to note pragmatic differences so that it will not take ten years in an immersion environment to develop appropriate pragmatics (as Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985, suggest that it may take in the absence of IE). From responses to these items, it is also concluded that, because of individual learner differences, both relatively deductive and inductive forms of enhancement appear to be of equal value in L2 instruction.

Finally, in order to address the third research question concerning the influence of form-focused attention on global comprehension, a direct and an indirect

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[52] Such a combination of approaches may be obtained by combining the methodology of this study with that developed by Pearson (2001) in her study on the development of learners' pragmatic competence through exposure to L2 video in conjunction with metapragmatic discussion.

feedback item were devised. The majority of the learners in the test group believed that focusing on form either helped or did not hinder global comprehension. Furthermore, the test group was able to remember more elements of the plot of the video series on average than the control group, suggesting that this form-focused enhancement techniques may have actually improved rather than hindered the learners' global comprehension.

In the following chapter the implications of these findings for the fields of linguistics, second language acquisition, and L2 pedagogy are discussed. The limitations of this study as well as directions for future research are also outlined.

Chapter Five: Conclusion

In this final chapter, the overall findings from this study are summarized and answers to the three research questions are offered. The findings are then placed within the contexts of second language acquisition theory, language instruction, and pragmatic theory to determine what contributions they may offer to these fields. Some strengths and limitations of the current study are suggested and various future directions for this research are discussed. Finally, some concluding remarks are provided concerning this research project.

5.1 THE EFFECT OF INPUT ENHANCEMENT ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

The mean scores displayed in Table 1 (seen in Chapter Four), which are in the 40-60% range, suggest that many more treatments need to be applied to develop the L2 pragmatics of language learners. It is somewhat encouraging, however, that, after only one semester and with the manipulation of only 4.5% of the course grade, the test group did seem to be more aware of Spanish pragmatics by using the type of input enhancement employed for this study. Findings that indicate statistical significance concerning a general awareness and specific use of some Spanish pragmatic forms support the hypothesis for this study that input enhancement, in conjunction with interactive video viewing, can augment the learners' L2 pragmatic awareness.

We now return to the three original research questions posed at the beginning of this project. In response to the first of the three research questions (What is the role of conscious awareness in the learning of L2 pragmatic features?), the findings appear to indicate that the role of conscious awareness is an important factor in the learning of L2 pragmatic features. The input enhancement activities appear to have influenced the learners of the test group to perform better than those of the control group at statistically significant levels in some areas. The fact that the test group learners performed significantly better in the written production task suggests that, when given time to think, they were more consciously aware of the general concept of pragmatics and of certain appropriate forms. Although the results from the oral production task were not significant, they were better than those obtained for the multiple-choice recognition task. The findings from these three tasks may indicate that, while exposure to the same video allowed both groups to recognize appropriate forms when they were in view at a nearly equal level, the input enhancement may have facilitated the extension of this awareness to a more conscious level, as seen in L2 production tasks. A pattern of significance in the area of second person forms of address, but not concerning any specific speech act, suggests that conscious awareness may have been heightened due to repetitive input enhancement only for this pragmatic feature. Therefore, although strong support was not found for the frequency hypothesis (Larsen-Freeman, 1976a, 1976b) regarding input, it seems that increased frequency of pragmatic information in input enhancement may serve to foster conscious awareness for certain features by the L2 learner. The inconsistent data from the individual speech act items suggest that pragmatic awareness may be selective. This selectivity, not addressed by the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993a), could be attributed to (a) a higher degree of salience or pertinence of some

pragmatic information to the learner (Kasper, 1992), (b) the learning of features in order of complexity (Meisel, 1983; Trosborg, 1994), (c) the learning of features in terms of markedness (Rutherford, 1982, 1984; White, 1988; Gass & Varonis, 1994), or (d) a combination of the factors of instruction and motivation influencing awareness of some features over others (Tomlin & Villa, 1994). Although these four concepts are different, they all suggest an active L2 learner who, on some level, filters input rather than a passive learner who is solely influenced by external factors that can be manipulated via instruction.

In response to the second research question (How can interactive video viewing enhance pragmatic input?), it appears that the interactive video viewing encouraged by the input enhancement treatments had a somewhat positive influence on the learners' affect toward the video component of the course and on the amount of time they allocated to this task. These two variables may have influenced the learners' acquisition of some L2 pragmatic features and, thus, served as intervening variables. Although not relevant to this study, it is possible that other components of L2 acquisition (e.g., grammar, strategic competence, vocabulary, pronunciation) could have been positively affected by these intervening variables. As part of the search for answers to the second research question, instructional strategies and learning styles were analyzed. The findings appear to support the literature concerning learner differences (Oxford, 1989; Yule & Tarone, 1989) because different strategies were preferred by different learners (as seen in Chapter 4, Table 10) and several different learning styles were employed in order to perform the same task (as seen in Chapter 4, Table 9).

A goal of this study was to encourage an analytical viewing style using video as a virtual reality (Altman, 1989) that would ideally be transferred to real-life L2

situations. Learning styles reported by the test-group participants indicate that several did employ a sustained analytical viewing style that may have enhanced the pragmatic input more than the less interactive viewing style to which they are accustomed in other contexts (Lonergan, 1984). The test group's performance in some areas suggest that their more interactive, form-focused viewing styles may have influenced their pragmatic awareness. Whether or not this analytical viewing skill will later transfer to real-life situations is outside of the scope of this study. In conclusion, the findings seem to indicate that interactive video viewing may enhance pragmatic input by influencing factors such as learner attitude toward the input, the time dedicated to the input, and the promotion of a more active, analytical focus on the formal properties of the input.

Regarding the third research question (How does form-focused input enhancement affect learners global comprehension?), the experimental treatments appear not to have hindered but perhaps to have increased the learners' global comprehension. Both self-report data from the test group and a plot-recollection task performed by test and control groups, which indicated a statistical trend, support these claims. It is hypothesized that these findings may be explained by the fact that learners were primarily seeking lexical-level details, reflecting more a focus on global comprehension rather than on morphological-level details (VanPatten, 1989, 1990).

Possible implications of these findings for various fields of inquiry are discussed in the following sections.

5.2 IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISIITON

The main theoretical framework for this study was Schmidt's extensive research concerning the role of conscious learning in the development of L2 pragmatic competence (1990a, 1990b, 1992, 1993a, 1993b). Schmidt's contention, outlined in his Noticing Hypothesis (1993a, 1993b), was that awareness is necessary for L2 pragmatic learning to take place. To assess the implications of the current study for Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, one must first define the term "learning." If this term refers to the ability to recognize appropriate forms in the input, our study suggests that this ability may develop with or without enhancement. If "learning" refers to conscious knowledge, reflected in the ability to produce or access a specific form or general knowledge, our findings do offer some support for Schmidt's claims. While the test group informants were unable to produce significantly better forms in spontaneous oral production, they were able to produce them and demonstrate a general understanding of the concept of pragmatics at a significant level when given the time to think, seen in the written task. Using the concepts of "learning" versus "acquisition" outlined in Krashen's earlier Monitor Model and Input Hypothesis (1978, 1982, 1985), one would say that the participants in the current study learned but did not acquire the L2 pragmatics to a significant level.

Although Schmidt claims that conscious attention is a necessary condition for pragmatic learning to take place, he also contends that it is not a sufficient condition (1993a, 1993b). In his critique of Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, Robinson (1995, 1997a) echoes the claim that attention is not a sufficient condition for the learning of L2 pragmatics. Robinson (1997a) suggests a continuum involving implicit, enhanced, and instructed conditions, and claims that the attention to form provided by direct instruction, as opposed to our relatively more subtle enhancement techniques,

may not be sufficient for learning. This claim may shed some light on many of our results that show a positive trend, but do not indicate overwhelming significance. Schmidt and Robinson's claims also suggest a more active learner who filters input, on some level, and selects which input is to be committed to memory.

Gass and Varonis' (1994) examination of the interaction between input and second language production may be applied to this current study in that our test group participants may have performed better in written than in oral production because it is not just the nature of the input that is relevant, but also L2 learners seem to need some time to integrate and process new knowledge. The learners' new knowledge may have been only partially integrated so that it was retrievable only in contexts in which the learners had time to reflect. Gass and Varonis' claims seem to complement Salaberry and López-Ortega's claims (1998) concerning the influence of task on L2 production. As with Salaberry and López-Ortega's findings concerning grammar, the findings from the current study may indicate that some new pragmatic knowledge is integrated into learners' interlanguage to the level at which it can be accessed only when the task allows for more focus on form, such as in written production. Perhaps learners need more time and input to integrate some new knowledge to the level required to be able to access it at the more autonomous pace required of oral communication. Furthermore, following Salaberry and López-Ortega's contentions, oral tasks allow for more individual communicative control, meaning that learners can avoid structures that are not as well integrated into their knowledge base.

Overall, and in light of the related research outlined above, it appears that this study does show some support for Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, especially in terms of these learners' ability to produce significantly more appropriate forms in writing once enhancement had drawn their attention to such forms and concepts. The fact

that the participants in the study performed particularly well in the area of second person address following consistent, repeated enhancement on every treatment suggests the possibility that pragmatic features must be noticed more than once to be integrated into the learners' developing L2 interlanguage infrastructure. This finding also lends additional support to Gass and Varonis' claims (1994) because the constant repetition may have facilitated the integration phase that they claim needs to take place between attention to form and production.

Because this study utilized a holistic approach to examine the influence of enhancement of pragmatic material, no particular speech act was given repeated enhancement as was second person address in the treatments (see Appendix D). In the treatments that employed a more relatively inductive learning strategy, learners noticed and reported a variety of speech acts. More relatively deductive treatments also drew the learners' attention to a variety of speech acts found in the video program. This format drew all learners' attention to some pragmatic features while allowing them to notice others on an individual basis. The findings from this approach may provide some support for Kasper's (1992) contention that individual learners notice pragmatic information that is more pertinent or salient to each learner's particular circumstances. In other words, one learner in the current study may have had employment in which Spanish NNSs spoke on the telephone and, thus, been more attentive during the phone conversations in the video. Another learner may have been planning a vacation to Cancún and been more focused on scenes in which food was ordered in restaurants. A third participant in the study may have been more interested in male/female relationships and attended more to relationship-oriented conversations between the characters in the video.

In conclusion, SLA involves the individual learner to a more varying degree than can be controlled by the instructor or text. These findings concerning second person address and various speech acts may indicate that the Noticing Hypothesis and other consciousness-raising concepts have validity regarding the individual learner in addition to the group because the test group seemed to become more aware of the information that the enhancement reinforced the most while each learner may have become more aware of speech acts that were more relevant to that particular individual. Therefore, the concept of individual salience may account for uneven results in the individual speech act data.

Concerning this study's implications for second language acquisition, the fact that video was chosen as the medium for enhancement may also be noteworthy. In a study on pragmatic competence and adult L2 acquisition, Koike (1995) suggested that students of Spanish need to be exposed not only to the language itself, but also to contextualized interaction, such as through videotapes. The video component of the course was chosen for pragmatic enhancement partially due to such a suggestion. Although this component was a small part of the overall Intensive Spanish course and received minimal classroom support from instructors, the test group's significant performance in the areas of general pragmatic awareness and use of some specific pragmatic features seems to suggest that video may indeed be a powerful tool to teach L2 pragmatics. Therefore, the results of this study indicate support for Koike's suggestion concerning the value of video in second language acquisition.

The fact that video may prove a powerful tool to teach pragmatics also has many implications for L2 instruction. These and some additional implications of the current study are explored in the following section.

5.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

Lonergan (1984) claimed that in order for video to be a useful tool in the L2 classroom, the learners' viewing style had to be changed. He claimed that the television and movie industries create passive viewers who expect to sit back and be entertained. This passive viewing style can present several drawbacks for the L2 learner. First, it can lead to a negative attitude when learners view nonauthentic pedagogical videos that do not have the budgets (or viewers with enough L2 vocabulary) to meet Hollywood standards. Research (Gardner, 1980; Horwitz, 1988, Yule & Tarone, 1989) suggests that attitude has a strong influence on language learning. Although using authentic video in the L2 classroom may overcome such a drawback, authentic video presents its own drawbacks since the language is not controlled and can, thus, be more difficult for the beginning L2 learner to comprehend.

Another problem resulting from a passive viewing style is that the learners' focus is often on plot, but rarely on the form of the language used in the video. Encouraging a more active viewing style can facilitate more analytical listening that better harnesses the pedagogical potential of video. The treatments created for this study encouraged many learners to analyze various formal aspects of the L2. Feedback provided by the test-group participants in the current study concerning learning styles indicated that many learners did in fact employ active, analytical viewing styles throughout the video episodes. In conclusion, it appears that the type of input enhancement developed for this study may help to overcome a major problem noted by Lonergan concerning the use of video in the L2 classroom.

L2 educators often note that, in the long term, the classroom is not a substitute for real-life experience. Altman (1989), however, claims that video may be a

substitute for real-life experiences with a L2. For the current study it was hypothesized that video would be especially beneficial for teaching pragmatics because, while one instructor can explain the grammar of the L2, pragmatics are more context and interaction dependent (Hudson, 1980; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Mey, 1993). The significant findings in some areas of the current study imply some support for Altman's claims that the interactive language used in video may be a reasonable substitute for naturalistic learning, in which learners would acquire pragmatics indirectly via the reactions of their interlocutors.

While some educators may hesitate to use the video component of a course for more than listening comprehension due to concerns that encouraging a focus on form may hinder global comprehension (VanPatten, 1989, 1990), the results of this study indicate that this issue does not need to be a problem. The type of input enhancement developed for this study allowed the learners to concentrate mainly on lexical-level form, which did not seem to interfere with global comprehension. In fact, the findings suggest that input enhancement may increase the learners' focus, concentration, and time on task; hence, actually increasing global comprehension.

Another implication of the results of this study for language teaching concerns the implementation of this methodology. First of all, bolstering the external validity of the experiment, the methodology for this study can be easily replicated; therefore, it could be quite readily adapted by other educators. Since this research project consisted of nine preprinted worksheets for which the grading system could be rather easily explained in a brief instructor workshop or through a relatively simple preprinted answer key, the experiment could be replicated without intensive instructor training and supervision. In fact, the researcher compiled a self-teaching packet designed to be completed by the individual learners independently as they view the

Destinos series or to be incorporated into a classroom setting.[53] With some relatively minor revision, this project could be replicated utilizing different episodes of *Destinos* or a different pedagogical or authentic video. Given that many educational institutions do not have the funds or time to offer intensive training or supervision of instructors, materials such as these, which are relatively easy to implement, would presumably be advantageous.

Another concern often heard is that language instructors do not have enough time to add more components to the L2 curriculum. That concern is addressed in the methodology used for this study, which requires very little class time and can be implemented mainly as a homework assignment. Although some significant results were encountered using this methodology as a homework assignment with minimal classroom support, it may garner better results if used in tandem with metapragmatic classroom discussions, such as those employed in the methodology developed by Pearson (2001). Furthermore, the current study indicated that the language learner participants desired more classroom support for this homework assignment. It is therefore believed that, if possible, more classroom support may have a positive influence on the attitude of the learners and lead to better pragmatic competence. In conclusion, this methodology offers individual instructors the freedom to choose the level of classroom support to add, but extensive support is not an essential element for the relative success of the methodology.

There are additional implications for language teaching that result from this study. In their research, Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) observed that, in the absence of IE, it may take ten years of immersion in the L2 culture to acquire an

[53] It is planned that these instructional materials will be made available once the results of this project have been released and that they will be "user friendly" for both instructors and learners.

appropriate pragmatic competence. Pienneman (1984) contended that instruction could hasten the pace of L2 acquisition. Since the current study was conducted over a semester rather than being longitudinal in nature, it cannot be determined how long it would take the control group learners, who received no IE, to achieve parity with the test group learners. There is some evidence from the current study, however, that suggests that the IE used may have accelerated the learning of L2 pragmatics. This evidence is that both groups of learners performed relatively equally on the multiple-choice recognition task, but that the control group performed somewhat better on the oral task and significantly better on the written task. Perhaps both groups of learners understood some features of the L2 pragmatics on a subconscious level as a result of viewing the video, but the IE allowed for this learning to move to a conscious level in less time. This observation, of course, assumes that recognition precedes production, which was not proven.

Two more implications of the study for language instruction concern the two intervening variables of time and attitude. Our findings indicate that the methodology designed for this project encouraged learners to dedicate significantly more time to the video component of the course and also led to a somewhat more positive attitude on the part of the learners toward the video component of the course. It is hypothesized that these two variables may be interrelated. Given that both increased time on task and positive attitude are shown to facilitate language learning (Oxford, 1989; Young, 1992; Yule & Tarone, 1989), the incorporation of a methodology such as that used for this study into a language curriculum may provide collateral benefits.

In conclusion, the methodology and findings resulting from this study appear to have several implications for language teaching. In the next section, implications for pragmatic theory are investigated.

5.4 IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS FOR PRAGMATIC THEORY

The most important implication of this study for the field of pragmatics is that it offers evidence that an awareness of cross-cultural pragmatic differences and the use of some L2 pragmatic features can be achieved by beginning and intermediate language learners in a relatively short time with minimal input enhancement. Therefore, L2 pragmatics may be accessible to humans as are L1 pragmatics and learned in much the same way, through the observation of native speakers (Brown & Hanlon, 1970; Bruner, 1981; Hadley, 1973; Schmidt, 1993a). Since pragmatic theory suggests that pragmatic competence is an important facet of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1988), partly because L2 speakers may be even more sensitive to pragmatic than to grammatical errors (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei; 1998, Olshtain & Blum-Kulka; 1985, Terrell, 1987), it is encouraging to note that the timeframe to develop pragmatic awareness may be accelerated. Since research demonstrates that L2 pragmatic errors can cause interpersonal conflict (LoCastro, 1997), the findings from the current study imply a possible way to circumvent communication problems resulting from pragmatic errors.

LIke other studies in the field (Koike, 1989a), responses to the treatments used in the current study showed that once learners are aware of the concept of pragmatics and intercultural pragmatic differences, they find it relatively simple to note examples of L2 pragmatic usage. This finding adds support to Schmidt's notion of salience (1993a), which submits that once one is aware of a phenomenon or term, it is readily noticed when encountered in the environment although it went unnoticed previously. These findings indicate that the concept of pragmatics is relatively transparent.

Bachman's (1990) definition of pragmatics, included in his theory of language competence, was used for this study. It is a rather broad definition that includes illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence (see Figure 1.1 in Chapter One). In the treatments and feedback instruments developed here, an attempt was made to cover as many facets of Bachman's definition of pragmatics as possible. Learners were encouraged to notice and use language that expressed ideas and emotions, got things done, solved problems, and expressed creativity. They were also encouraged to note examples of dialect and register, to compare native-like use of the language in their L1 and L2, and to note cultural references and figures of speech. This approach was atypical of much research in the field of pragmatics because it focused on pragmatics from a holistic standpoint rather than specific speech acts. The findings from the current study showing statistical significance in overall pragmatic awareness and use (see Chapter 4, Table 1) indicate that pragmatics can be presented and learned holistically. The fact that a pattern of significance was not found in results for any particular speech act, but rather only for second person address, suggests that when a specific pragmatic feature is repeatedly enhanced, it may become more accessible to language learners. In other words, it appears that pragmatics can be presented from either a speech act (Searle, 1969) or holistic viewpoint (Bachman, 1990) with some encouraging results.

Although this study concerned pragmatics, it borrowed from some theory related to L2 grammar for which there is a bigger body of research. Those L2 grammar theories borrowed were considered to have a possible relation to pragmatics. For example, the current study considered Larsen-Freeman's frequency hypothesis (1976a, 1976b), which met with the same mixed results seen in grammar studies (Lightbown, 1983; Long & Sato, 1983), and the concepts of consciousness-raising

and input enhancement (Sharwood-Smith, 1988, 1991. 1993, 1994) that originally concerned L2 grammar. Schmidt (1990a, 1990b, 1993a, 1993b) theorized that IE is necessary for L2 pragmatic acquisition as well, but empirical support for his hypothesis is seen only in dissertations (Overfield, 1996; Pearson, 2001) with mixed, yet somewhat encouraging, results. These latter studies offer methodologies for empirically testing Schmidt's pragmatic theory, and the current study adds to this body of research, indicating that the concepts of CR and IE seem applicable to the field of L2 pragmatics.

There is also some evidence that L2 pragmatic theory intersects with L2 grammar and linguistic theory in their application to second language learning. For example, research by Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998) suggests that grammar is the micro and pragmatics is the macro level of language and that the acquisition of pragmatics is often dependent on a learners' knowledge of the grammar of a language. Hence, while L2 speakers may comprehend the concept of pragmatics, they may not have the grammatical or general linguistic ability to express the knowledge in the L2. An example of this phenomenon from the current study was the fact that all participants ended a phone conversation in a manner that was considered pragmatically inappropriate by both English and Spanish NSs. This behavior may be an example of a lack of general linguistic ability. Also, the curt request forms offered by many learners in the current study may provide examples of a lack of the grammatical competence necessary to demonstrate actual pragmatic knowledge. Other research has concurred that it may be grammatical competence rather than pragmatic awareness that hinders learners at the beginning and intermediate levels of second language acquisition. (Clark & Clifford, 1988; Hadley, 1993, Koike, 1989a).

In conclusion, the current study has some implications for pragmatic theory. It provides some support for claims that L2 pragmatic differences can be taught and that the concept of pragmatics is relatively accessible to learners. This investigation suggests that pragmatics can be presented to learners holistically as well as in terms of specific speech acts. It also supports claims that there is an interrelationship between L2 pragmatics and grammar and that, therefore, some theories developed to address L2 grammar are applicable to the field of L2 pragmatics.

5.5 STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

As mentioned, the strengths of this investigation are that it adds some support for Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis and offers a methodology by which to bridge L2 theory and pedagogy. The methodology employed in this research project can be repeated with minimal training and adaptation making it accessible to practitioners in the L2 field. This repeatability suggests external validity for the study.

This study was performed with a relatively large pool of 106 participants. Both subject selection and assignment to either test or control group were virtually random, and the Spanish course with the most homogeneous learners was chosen. For these reasons, it is believed that the investigation reflects internal validity.

Steps were taken to ensure that IE would concern the video component of the course and minimize direct instruction to the greatest extent possible. Not only were instructors and learners kept unaware of the nature of the study, but the treatments contained several other areas of inquiry, the researcher provided the most minimal feedback deemed possible, and instructors were encouraged to spend only minimal time reviewing the treatments in class. Minimizing classroom support was

undertaken to avoid tainting the findings with outside input. Although this aspect of the study constituted a strength regarding the findings, it was considered a drawback by the participants, who overwhelmingly reported a desire for more classroom support of the video component of the curriculum. It was encouraging to note that both test and control groups voiced the same complaint. The researcher does acknowledge, however, that for pedagogical purposes, it would be more beneficial to combine the methodology developed for this study with classroom support, especially metapragmatic discussion preceding and following the video viewing assignments. This conclusion is drawn from feedback from the participants in the current study as well as from personal experience when both methodologies were employed during the piloting process. Although it is acknowledged that combining methodologies is probably most beneficial to L2 learners, the somewhat encouraging results from this study indicate that, if an instructor does not have much time to dedicate to pragmatics instruction, an out-of-class video component could be added to the course to incorporate this important component of communicative competence.

Another drawback of this approach that sought to keep instructors and participants uninformed as to the nature of the study is that the conclusions that can be drawn from the study were somewhat limited by the format chosen. The decision not to use a pretest-posttest format meant that claims regarding L2 acquisition, which represents growth in learning over a period of time, could not be made. Claims can be made regarding only the awareness and use of certain pragmatic features by the two groups relative to each other following exposure to the same video.

A possible limitation of the study is that it was conducted over only one academic semester. Because of the size of the academic institution and differing language requirements of various departments, the feasibility of a longitudinal study

was hindered. To partially compensate for this situation, feedback was gathered from the participants during week fourteen (written and oral) and later during week sixteen (multiple-choice) of the semester. Although the results of the feedback may indicate that short term gains by the test group were soon lost, the nature of the tasks required may have also influenced the findings. Further research is needed to clarify this situation.

The learners for this study were relatively limited in L2 proficiency. This situation reflects a strength as well as a limitation of the investigation. Although research (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998; Hadley, 1993) suggests that pragmatics is best taught and acquired when more advanced L2 learners are involved, very few language learners continue to this level. Hence, it may be beneficial to develop strategies to teach pragmatics at all levels of the L2 curriculum. Research by Salaberry and López-Ortega (1998) suggesting that IE affects beginning L2 learners to a greater degree lends further support to the contention that it is beneficial to include beginning L2 learners in the instruction of pragmatics.

Some of the strengths and limitations of this study will influence the course of future research in this area of linguistic inquiry. Some possible directions for future research are outlined in the following section.

5.6 DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The research conducted for this investigation allows for further studies of different natures, including theoretical and practical studies. Now that the variable of independent, interactive video viewing has been isolated with somewhat successful results, it is believed that researchers need to examine this technique in combination

with other instructional strategies that have had some success with the goal of obtaining the optimum level of knowledge of L2 pragmatic features. Feedback from this study indicates that learner affect may be positively influenced from combining our video viewing methodology with more classroom support. Since this study shows some possible positive influence on learning as a result of learners' attitudes, increased benefits may be obtained from combining methodologies for both emotional and intellectual reasons.

It is believed that current and future research involving teaching pragmatics to learners at various levels should be synthesized to demonstrate that pragmatics instruction needs to be incorporated throughout the L2 curriculum. This practice would further allow longitudinal studies to gauge the effects of a given methodology with different learners. It would also allow instructors to reach learners at lower levels, beyond which most will not progress, and at upper levels, where pragmatics instruction may prove most beneficial to the learners for both academic and interpersonal reasons.

Once researchers determine which instructional strategy (or combination of strategies) provides the best results, the testing and development of instructional materials that best address raising L2 learners' pragmatic competence should be undertaken. The development of such materials should also take into consideration the extent of instructor training necessary to implement any new component into the L2 curriculum. Realistic objectives for both learners and instructors also need to be researched and formulated in conjunction with the introduction of a pragmatics component to an institution's L2 program.

Non-authentic video developed for pedagogical purposes was utilized for the current study. Our treatments and methodology, however, could be easily adapted to

any video format. A similar investigation utilizing authentic video is possible in the future, especially for learners at a higher proficiency level. Results could then be compared with those of the current study to formulate a pragmatic component to an L2 program across ability levels and involving different types of materials.

The treatments for this research project addressed L2 learners' communicative competence in other areas, including grammar, strategic competence, and cultural knowledge. Whether the use of these input enhancement techniques assisted learners in these other areas is unknown because such measurement was outside the scope of this investigation. This research, however, could be easily extended and applied to these other areas of second language learning. It would be interesting to conduct a similar experiment, but to analyze the effects of input enhancement treatments and interactive video viewing on the development of grammatical and strategic competence. As stated at the outset of this investigation, this study was undertaken partly because of concerns regarding how to derive more use from the video component of many L2 programs. If the video could be successfully used to enhance grammatical competence, strategic competence, and cultural knowledge as well as pragmatic competence, this initial concern would be addressed to a greater degree.

5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In summation, the findings from this investigation are somewhat encouraging. They indicate that enhancing independent video viewing can influence L2 learners' general awareness of the concept of interlanguage pragmatics and use of some specific pragmatic features. More specifically, the findings indicate that the learners' ability to express a significantly better pragmatic competence in writing and to be

more appropriate in language use involving the Spanish pragmatic feature of second person address is possible following one semester of enhancement. The data indicate that the enhancement technique utilized for this particular study seemed to influence the amount of time that learners dedicated to the video component of the course and their attitude toward it. Both of these factors may have, in turn, exerted a positive influence on the participants' acquisition of L2 pragmatics.

These findings have implications for the fields of second language acquisition, language teaching, and pragmatic theory. They indicate that L2 pragmatics can be taught with some level of success at relatively early stages of language proficiency and that input enhancement with independent video viewing appears to be a somewhat beneficial technique for doing so. The findings also suggest that the form of enhancement created for this study increased learners' time on task, positively influenced learner affect, and reached those with different learning styles. Findings concerning second person address forms may indicate that frequency of input enhancement concerning a specific pragmatic feature affects learners' awareness. Data for individual speech acts also suggest that individual L2 learners are active participants in the learning process. They seem to filter input and are more cognizant of those features that are more salient to them. The inconsistent speech act findings may also indicate that some features are more easily assimilated than others and that the Noticing Hypothesis does not apply equally to all pragmatic material. The findings from the three tasks performed by the learners indicate that input enhancement may activate passive pragmatic knowledge (recognition level) to a more conscious level where it can be expressed in the learners' L2 production, or perhaps accelerate this process.

There are both strengths and limitations concerning this investigation, which provide the motivation for future research. It might be beneficial to conduct similar research involving a longer time frame, with learners at various levels of L2 proficiency, utilizing different types of video input, and gauging any effects on other areas of communicative competence. One might also analyze the results of combining the methodology developed for this study with methodologies of other studies involving L2 pragmatics. Finally, the knowledge gained from this and similar investigations should be applied to develop empirically-based pedagogical materials to teach pragmatics in the L2 classroom.

Appendix A: Sample control group quizzes

Second of nine control group treatments/in-class quizzes

Instructor_____ Nombre_____
Fecha_____ Calificación_____

Quiz #2
Destinos, Episodes #19 and 20
¿Cierto o falso? (true or false?) Write "C" if the statement is 'cierto' and "F" if the statement is 'falso.' (5 points)

_____1. La señora en el cementerio le dice a Raquel que Angel murió hace poco. (The woman in the cemetery tells Raquel that Angel died a while ago.)

_____2. La esposa de Arturo era maestra de primaria. (Arturo's wife was an elementary schoolteacher.)

_____3. Angela llama a unos parientes para que vengan a conocer a Raquel. (Angela calls some relatives so they will come and meet Raquel.)

_____4. Los parientes de Angela viven en San Juan. (Angela's relatives live in San Juan.)

_____5. Según el episodio, Carmen quería mucho a su yerno. (According to the episode, Carmen loved her son-in-law very much.)

Eighth of nine control group treatments/in-class quizzes

Instructor_____ Nombre_____
Fecha_____ Calificación_____

Quiz #8
Destinos, Episodes #33 and 34

Completa las oraciones con la información correcta. (Select the correct answer.)

1. En la capital, Arturo por fin conoció a (In the capital, Arturo finally meets…)
a. Ramón b. Pedro c. Carlos

2. En Los Angeles, los padres de Raquel recibieron la visita de (In Los Angeles, Raquel's parents received a visit from…)
a. un antiguo profesor de Raquel (an old professor of Raquel)
b. un antiguo novio de Raquel (an old boyfriend of Raquel)
c. un colega de Raquel (a colleague of Raquel)

"Mimado" significa (The word 'mimado' means…)
a. memorable b. copy-cat c. spoiled

Después de su pelea con Juan, Pati salió corriendo a (After her fight with Juan, Pati ran to the…)
a. el parque (the park) b. el jardín (the garden) c. el carro (the car)

Angela quiere casarse con (Angela wants to marry…)
a. Roberto b. Arturo c. Jorge

A third common format used by the control group instructors was to ask their students to write a paragraph in which they summarized the plot of the episodes from the homework assignment. These were usually corrected for both grammatical form and content.

Appendix B: Description given to all participants

Semester breakdown and *Destinos* description given to all participants

X. GRADE BREAKDOWN: The student's grade in 508K is derived as follows:

Exam 1	8%	
Exam 2	12%	
Exam 3	12%	
Final Exam	15%	(Exams total: 47%)
Interviews	10%	
Oral Participation	5%	(Oral component total: 15%*)
Class readings & Compositions	11%	(5 readings @ 1%, 4 compositions @ 1.5%)
Portfolio	12.5%	
Destinos	4.5%*	
Quizzes/homework	10%	

Your instructor may make some small changes to this breakdown.

***VI. DESTINOS:** Destinos is a videotape telecourse for beginning and intermediate Spanish which you will use to develop listening comprehension and cultural knowledge. Each week, you must watch the episodes specified in the course outline. Tapes of these episodes can be borrowed and viewed in the language lab in Batts 234 or in the video facilities in the Undergraduate Library in Flawn Academic Center. Check with these facilities for hours. Episodes 18-35 can also be purchased on VHS tape at the cost of the copy ($15) in Batts Room 1. Individual instructors decide how to evaluate this portion of your grade.

Grades are kept in numerical form until the end of the semester, at which time they are averaged to determine the final letter grade (90-100% = A, 80-89.9% = B, 70-79.9%=C, 60-69.9% = D, below 60% = F). There is no curve in 508K. Do not expect your instructor to predict your letter grade before the end of the semester. You may ask to see your numerical grade with a week's notice at any time, and you are also strongly encouraged to keep track of and periodically calculate your own grade to prevent any surprises.

Appendix C: Definitions given to test group

Definitions of sociolinguistic and strategic competence provided to test group participants

Sociolinguistic Competence: This involves the appropriate use of language within various social contexts or situations. It can be seen as "verbal etiquette." Research has shown that parents rarely teach any grammar to their children, but that they are very active in teaching them how to make appropriate requests, apologies, expressions of gratitude, etc. From this we may infer that humans are more concerned with appropriateness than correctness in speech.

If you remember back to your childhood, you were probably never told to say "May I please have a piece of candy" instead of "Give me some candy," because that is the way that people in your country should make requests. On the contrary, you were probably taught to say it that way, because it was "good" and "polite." In other words, verbal "manners" are taught as though they are exactly the same among all humans. The problem is that this is not always the case. But, since people are taught this way, they expect all people to have the same concepts of what would be polite and what would be rude to say in a given situation. So, while people are tolerant of grammar errors in young children and foreigners, they are not as tolerant of sociolinguistic *faux pas*. Therefore, when you travel to a foreign country or deal with foreigners in the future, sociolinguistic competence is perhaps the most important indicator of how you will be perceived by the people to whom you speak.

While parents focus on sociolinguistic competence and allow children to learn grammar mostly on their own, in the foreign language classroom, instructors take the opposite approach. Grammar is taught extensively while matters of social etiquette are usually relegated to the end of the chapter where they are usually overlooked due to time concerns. In defense of instructors, these sections are also overlooked, because sociolinguistic competence would be extremely difficult to teach in a classroom setting. While young children are in natural social situations where their parents can be constantly reminding them of the appropriate thing to say in each situation, in a classroom, only the teacher is a native or near-native speaker and the setting is not "natural" at all. The only way the teacher could reasonably teach appropriate requests would be to say, in English, something like "When you're in a fancy restaurant, say . . x . ., When you're in a dive, say . . y . ., When you're with a friend, say . . z . ." The instructor could try to simulate these different situations in the classroom, but again, this would be very artificial and might still not be helpful to the students. This is where *Destinos* can be very helpful. In this program native Spanish speakers interact in many different situations with people of different ages, socioeconomic status, gender, and regional backgrounds. If you focus your attention on what is said in various situations, you will learn a great deal about sociolinguistics. The exercises in this packet will help you to do this.

Strategic competence: Learning a foreign language is very different from other types of learning. This is because if your instructor speaks the language you are learning, you cannot understand every word they are saying. (But, if they speak English, you won't learn at all!) Therefore, you must get used to feeling "lost" and using every context clue available in order to get the gist of what is being said. For many students this is very frustrating. As adults, we are used to understanding almost everything we hear and don't like feeling uncertain. However, the truth is that your instructor is probably speaking much more slowly than other Spanish speakers you will encounter. Therefore, in order to be a successful language learner, it is extremely important that you develop strategies that enable you to relax, listen for words or look for body language that you recognize, and then "piece these together" and make educated guesses in order to fill in the gaps and try to figure out what is being said. This is what is called "strategic competence." Until you become proficient in the language (which many say takes 10,000 hours of listening and speaking!), this ability will be extremely important for your listening comprehension. When I first went to a foreign country, I was surprised to find that the natives could understand my bad-grammar question much more easily than I could understand their fast answers. This was because in my Spanish classes I had been taught how to speak, but I only listened to my classmates and instructor and had never had a chance for my ear to get used to hearing natives speaking. (Sound familiar?) *Destinos* offers a remedy for this situation. Though sometimes the narrators speak in English or in very slow Spanish, at other times, the characters speak to each other at about the same pace as people do in "real life." This gives the viewer a chance to develop strategic competence in the comfort of his or her home before getting into a stressful situation in a foreign country.

Appendix D: Test group treatments

First of nine test group treatments
and relevant sections of subsequent treatments

Instructor_____ Nombre_____
Fecha_____ Calificación_____

Worksheet #1
Destinos, Episodes #1 and 2 and #48 and 49 (review of episodes 3-18)

*Please do the plot summary in Spanish. It will be graded for content only, not for grammar. The remaining sections may be done in either English or Spanish.
Plot summary:

1. Sociolinguistic competence: Give an example of a character using either formal (*usted*) or informal (*tú*) address with another character. Provide the context of the situation, and state why you believe the formal/informal was used in this situation. (See attached handout for helpful tips. [Appendix C])

Situation and characters
Actual quote
Why do you think this form was used?

2. Sociolinguistic competence: Note how language was used in social situations in *Destinos*. Provide the context and state which speech act you were observing (request, apology, compliment, insult, argument, suggestion, complaint, refusal, rebuke, etc.). Here you may also note examples of "deixis" (coming, going, bringing, taking, here there, etc.). Mention how Spanish manners and expressions are alike or different from English or other languages you know. (See attached handout for helpful tips. [Appendix C])

a. Situation and characters
b. Actual quote
c. Type of speech act
d. Is this alike or different from what should be said in the same situation in English or in another language that you know well?

e. If different, what would be more appropriate in your language (culture) to say in this same situation?

3. Strategic competence: How did you use context clues (a few key words) to make sense of an ambiguous situation or dialogue? With these limited "pieces" of the entire puzzle, what do you think was being said or done? (See attached handout for helpful tips. [Appendix C])
Key words (quote)
Your interpretation of what was going on

4. Grammatical competence: Which of the grammar points from a recent class did you notice in the episodes? Provide speakers, situation, actual words, and note which grammar point the characters were applying.

Situation and characters
Actual quote
New grammar point being used

5. Language as a tool to increase world knowledge: Name what you learned about history, geography, art, music, health, economics, politics, business, law, etc. from watching these episodes. (i.e., What Jeopardy question could you answer today that you would have missed yesterday?)

Jeopardy category
New knowledge

Second of nine test group treatments

Plot summary:

1. Sociolinguistic competence: Give an example of a character using either formal (*usted*) or informal (*tú*) address with another character. Provide the context of the situation, and state why you believe the formal/informal was used in this situation.

2. Sociolinguistic competence: Note how language was used in social situations in *Destinos*. Provide the context and state which speech act you were observing (request, apology, compliment, insult, argument, suggestion, complaint, refusal, rebuke, etc.). Here you may also note examples of "deixis" (coming, going, bringing, taking, here there, etc.). Mention how Spanish manners and expressions are alike or different from English or other languages which you know.

3. Strategic competence: How did you use context clues (a few key words) to make sense of an ambiguous situation or dialogue? With these limited "pieces" of the entire puzzle, what do you think was being said or done?

Third of nine test group treatments

Plot summary:

1. Sociolinguistic competence: Give an example of a character using either formal (*usted*) or informal (*tú*) address with another character. Provide the context of the situation, and state why you believe the formal/informal was used in this situation.

2. Sociolinguistic competence: Note how language was used in social situations in *Destinos*. Provide the context and state which speech act you were observing (request, apology, compliment, insult, argument, suggestion, complaint, refusal, rebuke, etc.). Here you may also note examples of "deixis" (coming, going, bringing, taking, here there, etc.). Mention how Spanish manners and expressions are alike or different from English or other languages which you know.

Fourth of nine test group treatments

Worksheet #4

Destinos, Episodes #23 and 24

*NOTE: There have been some changes. Read before viewing

Plot summary:

1. Sociolinguistic competence: In episode 24, Raquel takes a strong dislike to a character she has recently met. What does this character say that makes her dislike him? (Focus on words, not actions.)

Quotes:

2. In this same situation, how does Raquel express her dislike of this individual without being blatantly rude? Comment on both verbal expression and body language.

Quotes:

3. In episode 24, Raquel makes a suggestion to Angela on a rather touchy subject. How exactly does she phrase her suggestion? Is this similar to or different from the way you would make such a suggestion in English?

Quote:

Alike or different from English?

Explain:

4. Grammatical competence: Which of the grammar points from a recent class did you notice in the episodes? Provide speakers, situation, actual words, and note which grammar point the characters were applying.

Fifth of nine test group treatments

*NOTE: There have been some changes. Read before viewing

Plot summary:

1. Sociolinguistic competence: In episode 27, at one point Raquel and Angela think there is a mistake in the hospital registration list. EXACTLY what words does Raquel use to ask the receptionist whether it's possible that there's a mistake? Would an exact translation of her words be equally polite in English?

Quote:
Translation:
Cross-cultural analysis:

2 and 3: While there's not a lot of action in these two episodes, there are lots of examples of speech acts. Find one example of each of the following: request, leave-taking (saying good night or good bye), consoling/comforting. How were these similar to or different from the way they are done in English (or any other languages you speak)?
Request quote:
Compare to English:
Leave-taking quote:
Compare to English:
Consoling quote:
Compare to English:

4. and 5. Grammatical competence: Find three examples each of the use of preterite and imperfect verbal aspects. How can you explain the choice of aspect in each case?

PRETERITE quotes:
1.
why?
2.
why?
3.
why?
IMPERFECT quotes:
1.
why?
2.
why?
3.
why?

Sixth of nine test group treatments

1. To what does the title of each episode refer?

29:
30:

Plot summary:

2 & 3. Sociolinguistic competence: Give examples of at least two of the following speech acts: request, apology, compliment, insult, argument, suggestion, complaint, refusal, rebuke, other_____. Include exact words. What was there in the utterance

that made it (im)polite and/or (in)formal? How was it similar or different from the way it's done in English (or any other language you speak)?
Quote #1:
Analysis
How similar or different from English?
Quote #2:
Analysis
How similar or different from English?

4. Grammatical competence: Find two examples each of the use of preterite and imperfect verbal aspects. How can you explain the choice of aspect in each case?

Seventh of nine test group treatments

1. ¿A que se refiere el título de cada episodio? (To what does the title of each episode refer?) **Not translated on original.**

31:
32:
Resumen breve de la trama en español (Plot summary): **Not translated on original.**

2. Sociolinguistic competence: Give examples of at least two of the following speech acts: request, apology, compliment, insult, argument, suggestion, complaint, refusal, rebuke, other_____. Include exact words. What was there in the utterance that made it (im)polite and/or (in)formal? (Remember that formal and polite are not synonyms; you can be informal and polite at the same time.) How were the speech acts similar to or different from the way it's done in English (or any other language you speak)?
Quote #1:
(In)formal/(im)polite analysis
How similar or different from English?
Quote #2:
Analysis
How similar or different from English?

Eighth of nine test group treatments

2 & 3. Sociolinguistic/Grammatical competence: Give examples of two formal and two informal commands. Were the commands "softened" in any way? Explain why the "*tú*" or "*usted*" form was used.
INFORMAL COMMANDS:
Characters:
Quote:
Why informal?:

Characters:
Quote:

Why informal?:

FORMAL COMMANDS:
Characters:
Quote:
Why formal?

Characters:
Quote:
Why formal?

Ninth of nine test group treatments

2. Sociolinguistic competence: In episode 35 Angela and Arturo meet for the first time. There are differences in age and professional status between the two. Which form does Angela use, *"tú"* or *"usted"*? Why? What form does Arturo use and why?

An Angela quote:
Why this form?

An Arturo quote:
Why this form?

3. Note how language was used in social situations in *Destinos*. Provide the context and state which speech act you were observing (request, apology, compliment, insult, argument, suggestion, complaint, refusal, rebuke, etc.) Here, you may also note examples of "deixis" (coming, going, bringing, taking, here, there, etc.) Mention how Spanish manners and expressions are alike or different from English or other languages that you know.

4. Which insulting term does Maria, Raquel's mother, use when she speaks about Arturo? What does this mean and why does she use it?
Insulting term:
Can you find parallels to this practice in English? Give examples:

5. Grammatical competence: Find and analyze at least two examples each of direct objects and indirect objects. (The conversation between Arturo and Pedro in the hospital is one good source.)

Appendix E: The written feedback

INSTRUCTOR_____NAME_____
(No one, but Caryn Witten will read individual responses. They will be held in strict confidence. If any are used in my research, a pseudonym will be used. I appreciate your candid observations.)

PART A

PLEASE RATE THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ON A SCALE OF 1 - 5.

1. *Destinos* helped me to improve my Spanish grammar.

Agree				Disagree	Don't know
1	2	3	4	5	*

2. *Destinos* improved my Spanish listening comprehension.

Agree				Disagree	Don't know
1	2	3	4	5	*

3. The *Destinos* part of the course seemed mostly like "busy work" to me. It didn't help improve my Spanish much.

Agree				Disagree	Don't know
1	2	3	4	5	*

4. *Destinos* was useful to learn about Hispanic culture.

Agree				Disagree	Don't know
1	2	3	4	5	*

5. I always dreaded the days I had to watch *Destinos.*

Agree				Disagree	Don't know
1	2	3	4	5	*

EXPLAIN WHY OR WHY NOT

_____

_____

6. Our *Destinos* quizzes seemed fair to me, because they accurately reflected what I learned from the program.

Agree				Disagree	Don't know
1	2	3	4	5	*

7. *Destinos* taught me a lot about what to say in different situations in Spanish-speaking countries. (For example, it taught me when to use the 'tu' or 'usted' form, how to answer the phone in Spanish, etc.)

Agree				Disagree	Don't know
1	2	3	4	5	*

8, PLEASE RANK THE FOLLOWING ACTIVITIES IN ORDER OF HOW USEFUL THEY WERE IN TEACHING YOU SPANISH. 1=1st, 2=2nd most useful, etc.

_____ Reading Portfolios
_____ Written Compositions
_____ *Destinos*
_____ Homework grammar assignments
_____ Oral interviews and presentations

9. *DESTINOS* IS THE MOST USEFUL FOR LEARNING. . . 1=1st, 2=2nd most useful, etc.

_____ Grammar
_____ Listening Comprehension
_____ To learn what Spanish speakers say in different situations
_____ Culture
_____ Pronunciation

10. Of the 9 *Destinos* viewings, how many did you miss?_____ (Remember these answers are confidential.)

11. How much time on average did you spend on *Destinos* each week?
_____

12. If you were a Spanish instructor, how would you make *Destinos* more useful to the students?

_____
_____
_____
_____

13. What do you think about *Destinos* and the way it was used in this class?

(The remaining questions are for students who had take home *Destinos* quizzes only)
14. Which statement best describes your approach to doing the take-home quizzes (check all that apply)

_____ a. I would get the information needed to fill out the questions as soon as possible and then relax and watch the rest of the show for the sake of the plot only.
_____ b. I would watch the show focusing on the plot and then get the information for the quizzes near the end of the episodes.
_____ c. I would look for answers to the quizzes at a relaxed pace throughout the episodes.
_____ d. After I got the answers, I would keep sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, etc. in mind while watching the rest of the episodes.
_____ e. I watched the episodes long enough to get the answers to the questions.
_____ f. Other _____

15. How did doing the take-home quizzes affect your overall understanding of what was going on in *Destinos?*
_____ a. They helped me to understand the plot better, because I had to concentrate more.
_____ b. They were distracting and made it hard to focus on the plot.
_____ c. Other reaction _____

16. Which type of question did you find more difficult?
a. Questions that asked me to find a quote in a GENERAL area (grammar, sociolinguistics, etc.) on my own.
b. Questions that asked me to find a SPECIFIC quote (ex. What did Jorge say to Raquel when….)
c. They were equally challenging.

17. Which type of question made you LEARN more?
a. Questions that asked me to find a quote in a GNERAL area on my own
b. Questions that asked me to find a SPECIFIC quote
c. They were equally useful/practical to improve my Spanish.
d. They were equally useless to improve my Spanish.

PART B

B. PLEASE RESPOND WITH SHORT ANSWERS IN ENGLISH OR SPANISH. YOU MAY USE THE WAY THE CHARACTERS IN *DESTINOS* TALKED TO EACH OTHER TO HELP YOU ANSWER.
***Either use or awareness of L2 pragmatics has been added to this document.**
1. When a person says, “Me puedes tutuear. El tuteo es mas íntimo,” what is being suggested? [use]
_____
_____

2. Have you noticed any differences between what English-speaking Americans and Spanish speakers when beginning or ending a telephone conversation or is what they say a direct translation of what we say? [awareness]

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

3. Give some examples of situations when the 'tú' form would be used and situations when the 'usted' form would be used. [use]

'Tú'

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

'Usted'

a. _____

b. _____

c._____

4. Is the following suggestion polite in Spanish when one thinks an error has been made?

"¿No será un error?" [use] YES NO DON'T KNOW

EXPLAIN_____

_____

Is an exact translation acceptable in English? YES NO

EXPLAIN_____

_____

5. In *Destinos* when Angela wanted to go to Mexico with Raquel, did she speak to her family in a way that would be different in American culture? [awareness] YES NO EXPLAIN

_____
_____

6. Give an example of a typical introduction of one person to another in Spanish. You can use names of 'person a,' 'person b,' etc. [use]

_____:_____
_____:_____
_____:_____
_____:_____
_____:_____

7. In English, while we're talking we use lots of expressions like "hmm..." "well..." "anyway..." as "connectors" or to give us time to think of our next point. Have you noticed any such expressions used in Spanish? [awareness] YES NO

EXAMPLES:

_____
_____

8. In the episodes of *Destinos* that you've seen, Angela and Raquel began to call each other 'tú.' If in the future they meet at a formal, black-tie party, what should they call each other? [use]

tú usted

EXPLAIN_____
_____

9. What have you noticed about the concept of politeness (manners) in "typical" Spanish-speaking countries as opposed to "typical" American English culture? [awareness]

10. What similarities and differences have you noticed regarding how we console people in the above two languages/cultures? [awareness]

11. What similarities or differences have you noticed regarding how we make requests in the above two languages/cultures? [awareness]

12. Have you noticed people using the term 'please'/ 'por favor' more in English or in Spanish? [use]

ENGLISH SPANISH DON'T KNOW

13. In *Destinos,* there were characters from many different countries. What differences did you notice in the way they spoke Spanish? [awareness]

14. Have you noticed any terms that one group of Spanish-speakers uses to criticize another group of Spaish-speakers (i.e., 'ethnic slurs' between Spanish speakers)? [awareness]

YES NO

EXAMPLES

15. Please take a minute or two and write quickly in note form and in English the details that you remember from the episodes of *Destinos* that you saw this semester.

Appendix F: The oral feedback

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ORAL ROLE PLAYS:

1. Decide who will be 'Person A' and who will be 'Person B' before going any further.
2. Briefly cover each of the four situations listed below using the Spanish words that "typical" Spanish-speakers would most likely use in these situations. You may use what you remember from the characters in *Destinos* as a guide.
3. RELAX and speak into the mike. This will not be graded and it is totally anonymous!

#1 Person A calls person B on the phone
B: Answer phone. (Item #1)[54]
A: Greet and identify yourself. (Item #2)
B: Greet.
A: Ask if you can use Person B;s Spanish book. (Item #3)
B: Say yes.
A and B: End call. (Item #4)

#2 Person B waits tables in a fancy, five-star restaurant. Person A is the customer.
B: Greet and ask for A;s order. (Item #5)
A: Order wine. (Item #6)
B: Respond.

#3 Person A goes to a party with Person B. Person A runs into an old friend named Maria. Person A introduces Maria to Person B.
A: Greet Maria. Then introduce her to Person B. (Item #7)
B: Respond appropriately. (Item #8)

#4 (For this one, Person A is a 'don Juan' and Person B is a female he has must met!) Person A, B, and A's naïve girlfriend are at the beach. While Person A's girlfriend is not looking, he flirts with her friend, Person B.
A: Flirt with B by asking two personal questions. Wait for an answer between each one. (Item #9)
B: Deflect these advances firmly, but quietly, so that your friend, A's girlfriend will not hear. (Item #10)

[54] Item numbers in parenthesis following the instructions to the learners were added later for the readers of this study.

Appendix G: The multiple-choice feedback

Multiple-choice Feedback (3 weeks later)

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION-DESTINOS

The following section will not affect your grade on the exam or in the course, but it will help researchers to find effective ways of using the Destinos programs and of teaching certain important sociolinguistic concepts. Please answer the following questions to the best of your ability.

PLEASE MARK THE MOST CULTURALLY APPROPRIATE RESPONSE TO THE FOLLOWING SITUATIONS. USE THE WAY THE CHARACTERS IN DESTINOS TREATED EACH OTHER TO HELP ANSWER.

***appropriate responses have been placed in bold type**

1. You are in a Spanish-speaking country and someone knocks on your door. While you're on the way to answer, you should say:
   a. Con permiso
   b. Vengo
   c. Ya voy
   d. Estoy viniendo

2. An older person of the opposite sex stops you on the street to ask for directions to the nearby movie theater. You should reply:
   a. Doble usted a la derecha.
   b. Dobla tu a la derecha.
   c. No response, any communication would be improper.
   d. Voy contigo.

3. While you're in your hotel room in Mexico the phone rings. How should you answer it?
   a. Hola
   b. Buenos días
   c. ¿Quién habla?
   d. Bueno

4. You go to have dinner with a family who has a five-year-old child. How should you ask him his age?
   a. ¿Cuántos años tiene usted?
   b. ¿Cuántos años tienes tú?
   c. Inappropriate question in this culture
   d. Ask parents; not child

5. How should you order a glass of wine in a five star restaurant?
    a. Dame un vino tinto por favor
    b. Deme un vino tinto.
    c. Me gustaría un vino tinto
    d. Puedo tener un vino tinto?

6. When is it appropriate to say 'buenas noches' in Spanish?
    a. Only when you are leaving
    b. Only when you first see people
    c. Both of the above
    d. Neither of the above

7. You walk into a friend's apartment for the first time and want to compliment her apartment.. You say:
    a. ¡Qué guapo!
    b. ¡Qué lindo!
    c. ¡Qué bueno!
    d. Mi apartamento es más grande

8. From Destinos, what have you noticed about the concept of politeness in different cultures?
    a. Direct translations of what is polite in English sound just as polite in Spanish.
    b. What is friendly in English may sound unfriendly in Spanish and vice versa.
    c. English speakers are more polite.
    d. Spanish speakers are more polite.
    e. Other_____

Appendix H: Sample inductive responses

Sample responses and feedback to relatively inductive-style items
***Letters in bold correspond to sample responses mentioned in Chapter Four**

Sociolinguistic competence: a. Give an example of a character using either formal (*usted*) or informal (*tú*) address with another character. Provide the context of the situation, and state why you believe the formal/informal was used in this situation.

Sample A: "When Juan walked into the kitchen when Arturo and Pedro were talking, Raquel and Angela were talking on the phone. They were having a friendly conversation using the *tú* (informal) form."

Feedback: "Give quote and why?" was written in the margin.

Sample B: "When Raquel was calling Pedro, she was talking to his housekeeper (the woman in pink). Raquel said '. . . *y usted*?' (formal form) when responding to the housekeeper. I think she said this, because the housekeeper was older. She said it to be respectful."

Feedback: A star was drawn in the margin.

b. Note how language was used in social situations in *Destinos*. Provide the context and state which speech act you were observing (request, apology, compliment, insult, argument, suggestion, complaint, refusal, rebuke, etc.). Here you may also note examples of "deixis" (coming, going, bringing, taking, here there, etc.). Mention how Spanish manners and expressions are alike or different from English or other languages you know.

Sample C: "When Pati was being told that her play was controversial and she should change it, she rebuked this. When she rebuked this fact, she became very

fidgety—for example, she moved her hands a lot. I think that this is very much alike in English. I think we also move our hands for emphasis when we disagree."

Feedback: "Give quote" and a star were placed in the margin.

Sample D1 and D2: (D1) "When they answer the phone, they say '*bueno*' (good) instead of 'hello.' (D2) When they [say] '*me gustaría*' instead of just saying '*me gusta.*'"

Feedback: A star was drawn in the margin.

Appendix I: Sample deductive responses

Sample responses and feedback to relatively deductive-style items
***Letters in bold correspond to sample responses mentioned in Chapter Four**

3a. In Episode 24, Raquel takes a strong dislike to a character she has recently met. What does this character say that makes her dislike him?

Sample E: "Jorge says to Raquel '*Me puedes tutear. ¿El tuteo es más íntimo, no?*' (You can use the informal address form with me. It is more intimate, don't you think?) In English, we cannot say this, because we only use the word 'you.'"

Feedback: A check mark was drawn in the margin.

Sample G: "As Raquel and Jorge were coming out of the auditorium, Raquel asked Jorge a question using the formal '*usted*.' In his reply, Jorge addressed her in the '*tú*' form, signaling a change in the dynamics of their relationship. He then said '*¿Estás casada*?' (Are you married?). This is when Raquel becomes turned off by him, and by the time he finished telling her that by staying at the university he had access to a lot of "opportunities," she knew that she didn't need to know anymore about him."

Feedback: A smiley face was drawn in the margin.

3c. In Episode 24, Raquel makes a suggestion to Angela on a rather touchy subject. How exactly does she phrase her suggestion? Is this similar to or different from the way you would make such a suggestion in English?

Sample F: "Raquel says to Angela '*¿No crees que es mejor que él mismo compre el cine?*' (Don't you think it is better that HE buys the theater with his own money?) I think if I were to make a suggestion it would be similar to this, if I were talking in English."

Feedback: A check mark was drawn in the margin.

Sample H: "In response to Angela's plan to give Jorge the money to start his theatrical company, Raquel asked Angela if she thought it would be better if Jorge bought the theater by himself. The way that Angela [Raquel] posed the question seems similar to the way that sort of situation would be handled in English."

Feedback: "Give quote" and a star were placed in the margin.

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Vita

Caryn Marie Witten was born in Erie, Pennsylvania in 1958 to Robert and Alice Orr. She is married to David Witten of Oklahoma City. She received BAs in Spanish and International Studies from Miami University of Ohio in 1979 and received a MA in Latin American Studies from Georgetown University in 1982. She spent her Junior year of undergraduate school at La Universidad de Valencia in Spain. Upon receiving her MA, she was awarded a Fulbright-Hays scholarship to study for one year at La Universidad de los Andes in Bogotá, Colombia and later received a Rotary International Scholarship to study for a year at La Universidad Autónoma de Guadalajara in Mexico.

Caryn began her teaching career in 1981. She was a bilingual teacher for the Dallas Public Schools for eight years and also taught Spanish and English as a second language at several institutes and colleges in both the United States and abroad. In 1994, she entered the University of Texas where she was employed as a graduate assistant Spanish instructor for seven years. She is currently an Assistant Professor of Spanish and Humanities at Southeastern Oklahoma State University.

Caryn has had three articles published concerning topics in Applied Linguistics and has also co-authored a book chapter on research in Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis.

Permanent address: 517 N. 5th Ave., Durant, OK, 74701

This dissertation was typed by the author.